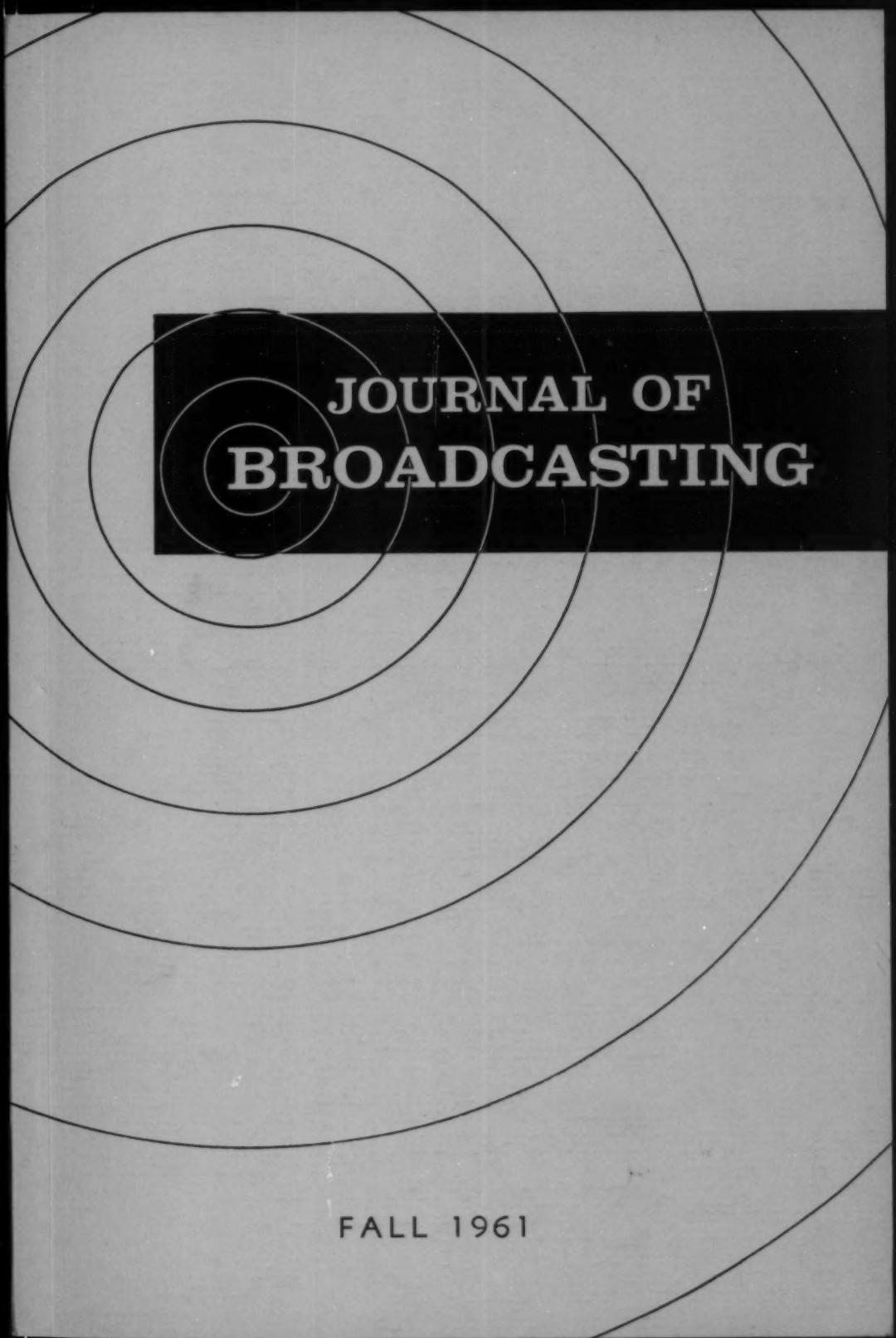
JOURNAL OF
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FALL 1961

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The Right Direction

PERHAPS the clearest sign of the quality of news and public affairs programing came this September when Jack Gould wrote in the *New York Times* that "With journalistic TV the behavior of the industry has virtually attained ideal standards." Mr. Gould, who is as we know little given to unwarranted praise, was bestowing the highest praise upon the quality and quantity of those programs that reflect and interpret the news.

It is a large jump from the hastily pasted together items from the press that passed for broadcast journalism during the "press-radio war" of the 1930's, to the world-girding reports on the multitiple facets of any important story that are available today. Although helped by radio's ability to "beat" the press during World War II's period of abnormal demand for news, it is to the credit of the *quality* of broadcast journalism that it has surpassed press journalism in the average American home within a short quarter century.

Our pride in this accomplishment is justified. The ever present radio receiver rightfully is the first recourse whenever news of the moment is desired. For the background of news that may affect our lives, presented in a style understandable to all, the documentary has no peer. No other programing can consistently achieve as much impact as live, on-the-spot special events coverage. Broadcasting's ability to present commentary, "conversation," analysis and editorials is receiving welcome additional emphasis on the part of the broadcaster and attention on the part of the listener.

However, to rest on one's justly deserved laurels is to invite supercession. Only if broadcasters are *not* satisfied with the sum total of their offerings can they hope to retain their pre-eminence in any programing area.

The direction in which greatest progress can be made is inadequately labeled with the word "depth." With superb technical facility, camera and microphone can intrude upon almost any event at any location. But few news events are truly comprehensible without interpretation and background. The events of yesterday lead to the event of today. It would be absurd to say

that the one to five minute newscast serves *no* purpose; but it would be equally absurd to suggest that such newscasts supply *sufficient* information for the detailed understanding of our world that its citizens *must* have for survival.

The fact that broadcasting is the greatest disseminator of news is beside the point. We need not only dissemination, but the gathering and treatment of news events in a meaningful manner. Too many of the nation's five thousand broadcasting stations rely upon two wire services for all their news. A substantial amount of news is gathered independently by the networks, or by the larger groups of stations, but even these additional sources are isolated in time and space. The local station may be limited in resources, but it is still best able to cover local news—a responsibility now receiving direct attention from the FCC.

Today, in a far more complex world, we are ever facing an even more dangerous situation. It is conceivable that short-sighted, even paranoid, men could destroy civilization. The broadcaster has a responsibility to warn the public of this situation, its antecedents and its implications, and all the potential paths to solution. But how can this be done when many newscasts follow the formula of a quarter century ago? Are we living up to our responsibilities with a 30-second spate of headlines or a five minute rip-and-read newscast composed of items merely of interest, not importance? Should broadcasters allow the networks to supply most of the interpretation, analysis or commentary on the world? Can our schools educate and local stations develop and use personnel with the necessary qualifications to understand and analyze the news themselves? Do caution and convenience require that important interviews and discussions be taped so far ahead that the world has moved out from under, to the embarrassment of all?

In a world that changes overnight, it is necessary to write an editorial for a quarterly magazine in generalities, not specifics. However, there are two clear points: first, that broadcasters have a special responsibility in a world that appears to be going mad; second, that the efforts in news and public affairs programing of which we are so justly proud are not enough. Without intelligent behavior the future for humanity (including broadcasters) is bleak. With thought-provoking and factual information, men of good will *can* direct their actions intelligently.

How the U.S. Heard About Pearl Harbor

BY ERNEST D. ROSE

Twenty years ago, on a sleepy Sunday, Americans heard from their radios that they were at war. Imperfect as these reports were, they were sufficient to reshape the outlook of a nation and the course of world events. Ernest Rose, Film Director and Research Associate Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University, fortuitously discovered recordings of these broadcasts at the Hoover Institute on War, Revolution and Peace at Stanford. Although the transcripts (edited slightly for publication) are of great interest, the more sobering conclusions of Mr. Rose are of even greater importance.

• • •

NOW that the ashes of World War II have settled and national passions have shifted to different spheres in the world power struggle, much of the oratory which accompanied the events of those years has faded from memory. Of particular interest to the communications specialist, however, are those words which are uttered at the very outset of any cataclysmic event, for such statements not only reveal much about the speaker but they frequently mold an impression which remains in an audience's memory even after the initial pattern of communciation changes.

What kinds of things happened to our news communication under conditions of extreme surprise, complete emotional involvement, and little first hand information? An examination of U.S. radio news broadcasts on Pearl Harbor Day gives one cause for serious reflection.

December 7, 1941

At "X" plus 1 hour and 5 minutes the Japanese carriers were taking aboard the last of their returning aircraft. (To simplify time zone differences, "X" denotes the time at which the bombing attack on Pearl Harbor ended; i.e., 9:45 A.M. Honolulu time, 11:45 A.M. PST, or 2:45 P.M. EST.) At that moment, an NBC

announcer reread the following statement relayed a few minutes earlier from station KGU in Hawaii:

> BULLETIN: We have witnessed this morning the attack of Pearl Harbor and the severe bombing of Pearl Harbor by army planes that are undoubtedly Japanese. The city of Honolulu has also been attacked and considerable damage done. This battle has been going on for nearly three hours. One of the bombers dropped within fifty feet of Tanti Towers. It's no joke —it's a real war. The public of Honolulu has been advised to keep in their homes and away from the army and navy. There has been severe fighting going on in the air and on the sea . . . (Then there was an interruption followed by this) . . . We have no statement as to how much damage has been done but it has been a very severe attack. The army and the navy, it appears, now has the air and sea under control.

This early bulletin was not untypical of the on-the-spot accounts received in the U.S. during the first few hours after the bombing. Except for occasional lapses, such as the wishful remark which ends the above bulletin, these broadcasts tended as a whole to be reliable, to be comparatively brief, and almost always to be reportorial rather than interpretive in nature.

On the other hand, many of these messages contained small errors as to detail, which in retrospect might be judged as relatively minor in terms of the over-all context of the message. However, these details were frequently picked up and amplified back in the States. Three such errors of detail are evident in the above example. First is a reference to the attackers as Japanese "*army*" planes. Actually they were all specially trained units of the naval air arm which had rehearsed the attack for weeks at a secret island base in the Kuriles where the terrain was similar to Pearl Harbor. A second inaccuracy is the statement that the battle "has been going on for nearly 3 hours." The subsequent examination of log books and records show that the first Japanese planes actually came over the harbor at 7:59 AM and the final wave departed approximately 1 hour and 45 minutes later. Since the planes were not pursued to their carriers, for all intents and purposes the raid ended at 9:45 AM. A third point refers to the attack on the city of Honolulu and the considerable damage done. A congressional investigation later revealed that about 40 explosions occurred in Honolulu. All except one of these were the result of

U.S. antiaircraft fire and not enemy bombs. Total damage to the city was approximately $500,000.

While such factual errors seem minor in scope to us today, it is possible to trace some of the subsequent distortions in news programs at least in part to just such seemingly trivial inaccuracies. At the very least they added to the confusion of those at home who attempted to piece together the entire picture from the fragments and phrases that came from the scene of the disaster.

As the day wore on, however, direct on-the-spot news reports were heard less and less frequently as security measures were clamped into effect. Thus a considerably larger proportion of air time throughout the day was devoted to commentary by radio news analysis and military or political pundits.

One such personality was Upton Close, expert on Far Eastern affairs and a nationally prominent radio news analyist. At "X" plus 10 minutes he went on the air from San Francisco:

> Hello, fellow Americans. The most fantastic thing that has yet happened in this fantastic world is the bombing of Honolulu and the bombing of Manila and the sinking of several ships off this coast. We don't know yet what is behind this—there is more behind it than meets the eye. So far the reports that have been coming in have been entirely based on military sources and military understanding and military computation. I think I have just received the most interesting and perhaps the most important sidelight on what has happened. . . .
>
> I have just been in touch with the San Francisco Japanese Consulate General. The Consul, Mr. Yoshio Muto, was not able to talk but his representative and secretary, Mr. K. Inagaki, spoke to me from the home of Mr. Muto. He said that the attack is a complete surprise to the Consulate General here in San Francisco, that the first the San Francisco Consul General knew about it was hearing it over our radio and he implied that it was likewise a complete surprise to the Foreign Office in Tokyo and the Japanese government in Tokyo.
>
> Now that may prove to be true. It is very possible that there is a double double-cross in this business. I suppose that if the attack on Honolulu had been made in such force as to destroy the American Naval Base there, we might believe that the Japanese government was behind it as a matter of policy. But you notice that the news gives us every assurance that it is far from destroyed and that the only thing left there now as the

result of the first attack are a few parachute troops wandering around on the sand on the north end of Oahu Island. They will soon be pulled in the bag and we'll find out who sent them. *[Actually there were no paratroopers landed; only 2 or 3 pilots who bailed out of their damaged aircraft.]*

It is possible, my friends, that this is a coup engineered by German influence and with the aid of German vessels in the Pacific. And again it is possible that this is a coup engineered by a small portion of the Japanese navy that has gone fanatic and decided to precipitate war. And still again it is possible that this is a coup engineered by the group in Japan that wants the group that wants war kicked out of office. And that when the thing is brought home to the Tokyo government now it might be possible for the Tokyo government to repudiate the action, call upon the nation to repair the injury to America by agreeing to American terms and precipitating a complete revolution in the government in Tokyo. All these things are possible. You will have to wait and see what happens.

Now I will be glad to go on talking as long as they wish me to take time on various phases of this situation. It seems to me that if the coup is precipitated by those fanatics who have wanted America at war with Japan and visa versa it might have been done as an answer to the messages of Secretary Cordell Hull to the Envoy Kurusu and Nomura. You notice that we are told that Mr. Hull burst out in true Tennessee language and told the Japanese that their reply was crowded with infamous falsehoods and distortions.

I have been in many a Japanese brawl, I am sorry to say, and I have seen many an argument with Japanese, that would have ended just an argument, suddenly burst into violence because something was said by one of the so-called "white people" in the crowd that suddenly lashed across the Japanese face. Now it is possible that the Japanese completely lost face and descended to the status of being willing to engage in a violent brawl as a result of this answer, although it might be that this answer and Secretary Hull's message came at the same time. But it sounds like one of those Japanese arguments that suddenly descends into violence. *(Announcer: "One moment please while we attempt further contact with Hawaii.")*

Seventeen minutes later, at "X" plus 1 hour and 42 minutes, Mr. Close returned to the microphone. At that moment, thousands lay dead; four of the navy's 9 Pacific Fleet battleships were sinking or already on the bottom; 4 more battleships had been

badly hit and disabled; 347 of Oahu's 394 military and naval planes had been destroyed.

> Hello Americans. We have just had a flash from Toyko saying that a state of war exists with the United States. Now we begin to see through things. It's obvious that the Imperial General Staff in Tokyo took affairs right out of the hands of the civil government and has precipitated an attack and now announces that that attack is official. . . .
>
> We are very interested in whether or not the attack on Honolulu would be called from a military standpoint a real serious attack. So far five civilians killed in the bombing of the city is certainly not what they would call a serious attack in London. We have at present two conflicting, possibly conflicting, reports about the damage done in a military sense. There seems to be no doubt that the air field at Hickman *[actually Hickam]* Field was hit and damage done which was not serious from the standpoint of flying but a tragedy in the shape of a direct hit on an American barracks which it is said killed 350 American soldier boys on the field. That's the worst thing yet.
>
> There seems some uncertainty whether any real damage was done to the naval base. We have a report saying the *USS Oklahoma*, a battleship, one of our first class but not one of our newest, was set afire in the air attack, but it doesn't say whether it's seriously afire or not. There is another report, uncomfirmed, that two U.S. warships, one of them the *West Virginia*, were sunk. I would take that just as a rumor until we have further confirmation. Now, as I have said before, the whole thing is going to come clear after we get these speeches from the Premier of Japan.
>
> It's rather interesting to note the possibilities of the way in which the attack took place. There is one rumor that the attack took place from the south, that would be in the direction of the island of Maui. It might be that a Japanese airplane was hiding out around the little island of Maui or below Molokai. It might even have been in connection with something going on in the island of Hawaii, the biggest in the chain and the southern-most one. There's a port there called Hilo where there are Japanese in dominance. . . . We have just had a flash saying that Japan has also entered a state of war with Britain. Manila is ready now so we take you to Manila.

The general character of Mr. Close's remarks is by no means an isolated example of the kinds of statements the American peo-

ple heard during the first eight hours of radio news broadcasting on Sunday, December 7th.

For instance, at "X" plus 3 hours and 15 minutes, while rescue operations continued to occupy the attention of every spare man in the Pearl Harbor area, while fires still raged uncontrolled aboard the battleships *West Virginia, Tennessee, Oklahoma* and *Arizona*, Major George Fielding Elliott, syndicated columnist and author of several widely read books on military strategy explained in his characteristic monotone:

> . . . It should be emphasized that this attack is of a suicidal nature from which few of the ship's aircraft and personnel participating have any hope of returning. *[Actual box score as close as can be determined from subsequent investigations: enemy planes claimed shot down by the U.S.—48; losses admitted by the Japanese—29; total number of Japanese aircraft participating in the attack—353.]* It is a procedure entirely in keeping with the Japanese character. A sort of desperate and sudden blow which recalled the Japanese torpedo attack on the Russian fleet in Port Arthur Harbor in January 1904. But this is an attack against a far more formidable foe and under far less favorable conditions.
>
> What actual damage has been done is hard to ascertain at this moment. There are reports that two capital ships of the United States fleet have been damaged. Even if this is so, and these reports are unconfirmed, we have yet to see what the Japanese fleet will lose in the way of aircraft carriers. . . .
>
> When the president was talking to the governor of the Hawaiian Islands, the governor reported that a second wave of Japanese planes was just coming over, which suggests that the Japanese planes, or some of them, had left, had time to return to their carrier, get a new load of bombs and fuel, and return to the attack. *[Actually there were two separate waves, 183 planes leaving the carriers at 6:00 AM followed by 170 more at 7:15 AM. None came back a second time.]* But this procedure will certainly lead the heavy American bombing planes to the carriers and the fact that the fleet has sailed from Pearl Harbor, *[Actually the remnants of the fleet escaped from the harbor more as a safety precaution, although some units did set out in a fruitless search for the enemy.]*, as just reported, probably indicates that an attempt to round up and destroy the carriers is now in full swing. . . .
>
> None of these operations, however, can overcome the fact that Japan is cornered, surrounded by forces which she cannot hope

> to overcome and to which in the end she must succumb. We have heard so far of what the Japanese have done. We shall hear presently what has happened to the Japanese forces which have been engaged in these daring and distant raids. And that, we may be sure, will be a different story and one which will mark, in the opinion of well informed observers, the beginning of the decline of the Japanese empire from its present position as a world power.

Equally authoritative in tone, but less well supported, were the observations of John B. Hughes, distinguished radio news analyst, speaking at "X" plus 3 hours and 40 minutes over a rival network:

> Good evening . . . It is obvious that the Japanese will attempt to develop in the South Pacific a triangular strategy. They will attempt to take either Singapore or Manila in order to establish a triangulation, as it were, a triangle of bases with Formosa, the island of Hainan and probably Manila. This is a Japanese naval strategy which has been planned and worked out in detail for a period of forty years and is to be found in all the naval books of warfare, as many of the Japanese militarists well know.
>
> A member of the Japanese general staff told me less than a year ago that if it became necessary the Japanese militarists, rather than lose power to the conservatives of Japan, rather than sacrifice the leadership which they had succeeded in acquiring after ten years of deliberate planning and step by step procedure, would deliberately lead the nation into a war they knew they could not win.
>
> Another very interesting point is the one made by Royal Arch Gunnison in his broadcast from Manila. He mentioned the fact that Russian planes and ships will be against the Japanese. The participation of Russia in the war against Japan on the side of the United States and Britain is a very important factor and a point upon which the Japanese have been making a tremendous effort to interfere. It was said in the past 10 days in Tokyo unofficially by a high official of the government that Japan was safe from Russia, that Russia would not fight against Japan with Britain and the United States. Royal Arch Gunnison's mention of Russia, particularly in this broadcast only ten minutes ago is very interesting, and on this side it is to be hoped that what he said is true because Britain and the United States must have Russian cooperation in order to wage the war effectively against Japan. *[Actual date of Russia's entry into the war against Japan—August 8, 1945, six days before its surrender.]*

Of all the commentaries none combined a greater mixture of false conjecture, exaggeration, wishful thinking, and rationalization than those of Fulton Lewis, Jr. Less inhibited than many of his colleagues, he spoke with the same zeal that has maintained for him a loyal following (and a steady list of sponsors) throughout the past two decades. For instance, at "X" plus 5 hours and 10 minutes, Mr. Lewis was observing:

> . . . First of all this attack took place under, to all intents and purposes, under the white flag of truce, because that's what it did. In their language it took place while Japan was using the integrity, the fairness, the peaceful intentions of the United States to stall for time, when as a matter of fact they were all the time, very obviously now, preparing for this attack on the island of Oahu, the Philippines, Guam and the United States in general. In other words while these peace conferences have been going on over the past two weeks they have not been peace conferences at all. They have been treachery, carrying the white flag of truce. They have been lies from the ground up, and that has produced terrific and bitter resentment here in the State Department circles, in diplomatic circles in general, among the administration leaders, and in Congress.
>
> The second thing was the manner in which this was done today. The attack on the ships in Pearl Harbor, . . . a very very foolish thing, as a matter of fact, suicidal fool-hardiness as a matter of fact, because the Japanese must know, as all the rest of the world knows, and all the rest of the navies and military men of the world know, that Pearl Harbor is the one invincible, absolutely invulnerable base in the world. It's stronger even than Gibralter itself, and as far as any attack or siege of it is concerned there could have been no possible sane intention on the part of the Japanese to such an end.
>
> The great resentment comes from the fact that these bombing planes and battleships—rather these bombing planes and the gun boat off Manila came in as they did to a peaceful, unsuspecting, unwarned community, dropped bombs out of a clear sky, served no notice, gave no fair play of warfare, no decency, no fair respect. After all, a good many people may have questioned today, "Well, how was all this damage done if we had such an excellent navy and such an excellent army air corps?" Why anyone can walk in, ladies and gentlemen (laugh), to ships lying peacefully in the harbor without the slightest suspicion that attack may come—anyone can come in with bombing planes and sink anything under those conditions. And

> that's exactly what happened this morning at Hickman *[sic]* Field. Officers, pilots, men at the field were going about their usual everyday procedure—the planes out on the field, no preparation for war, no expectation of it, no advance warning of any kind—when into that peaceful situation comes attacking planes. It is of course a one shot thing. They got away with it once—they will never get away with it again. The army and the navy privately have made that perfectly clear this afternoon, and the second attack later today on Hickman Field has proven that it isn't the same the second time. . . .
>
> There is considerable mystery, as I told you earlier this evening, as to where these fifty bombing planes came from. . . . One of the great points of interest so far as the War Department and the Navy Department here are concerned is to find out who the pilots of these planes are—whether they are Japanese pilots. There is some doubt as to that, some skepticism whether they may be pilots of some other nationality, perhaps Germans, perhaps Italians. . . .
>
> In the meantime, however, the American navy has steamed out under orders from Washington—has steamed out of Pearl Harbor, anchors away, and we may have more to that story of final results on these aircraft carriers and the Japanese fleet within a matter of a very few hours.
>
> There is little question as to what will happen once there is an open engagement between the Japanese fleet and the American fleet, if it ever happens on the high seas. A very high admiral of the United States Army—I mean the United States Navy told me not four weeks ago when I asked him how long it would take for an American victory under such circumstances, he said, "Well, Fulton, we'd be glad to do that any Wednesday morning." When I asked him—told him that I would like to have lunch with him that day because I would like to get a scoop on it, he said he would try to keep it in mind but he was afraid I wouldn't be interested because by noon that day is would be old news.

To be sure not all the broadcasts indulged in all the types of misleading statements and rationalizations. Indeed, some commentators exercised remarkable restraint in view of the shortage of information available to them and the pressure from an aroused public to inform. At "X" plus 7 hours and 10 minutes a voice is just barely heard above the din in the background:

> This is Eric Severeid reporting again directly from the press room in the White House. Here in the White House the vigil

> of reporters from all over the United States is still on. The phones are ringing . . . men are still working at the typewriters. Outside, a few yards away, in front of the main portico other reporters are still standing in a group, waiting for important personages to come in to the White House or to leave, trying to buttonhole all that they can for what information can be gleaned.
>
> Out on Pennsylvania Avenue you can see the policemen walking back and forth, and then across the street in the dim street light you can see from this porch a mass of faces all turned this way, a patient crowd standing there in the chill evening simply watching this lighted portico of the White House as the figures come and go. And to me I must confess there is a very familiar look and feeling about this whole scene. I've seen it in similar moments in Downing Street, in the Quay d'Orsay in Paris . . . the same crowd as these watching, waiting faces of ordinary citizens of those countries.
>
> Now there is one report which I must give you which is not at all confirmed—a report which is rather widely believed here and which has just come in. And that is that the destruction at Hawaii was indeed very heavy, more heavy than we really had anticipated. For this report says that two capital ships of ours have been sunk, that another capital ship has been badly damaged, and the same report from the same source says that the airfield hangers there in Hawaii were completely flattened out and that a great many planes have been damaged. There is no speculation about the number of planes. Now if the planes were dispersed on that airfield as they normally would have been with piles of earth around each one, the number of planes damaged probably was not great. But if the field was overcrowded for a possible emergency, then no one knows how many have been lost. Now I repeat, this report has not been confirmed but it has come in from a fairly reliable source and many reporters here indeed believe it.

It was in such tones that word of the real fate of Pearl Harbor began finally to filter through to the American people toward the late hours of that seemingly endless night.

Discussion

In spite of cautious, simply stated observations by a few scattered commentators, one can not escape the conclusion that in the over-all pattern of radio news communication that day something was drastically wrong. While on-the-spot reports were, for the most part, reliable as to general content, errors of detail in many

of them led to misinterpretation and confusion back in the States. After censorship drastically curtailed reports from on-the-scene sources, the bulk of radio news time was consumed by commentators and analysts trying to explain the meaning of situations without access to reliable first-hand information. Background to the news tended to be overly conservative and evasive. Under pressure from the public, the dominant tendency was to carry on regardless of the meager flow of "hard" news. The result was that a good deal of early information was stated and restated many different ways, and with varying degrees of indignation, throughout the day. But if that was all that happened to the news December 7th one would have only minor cause for concern.

The truth is that a disconcertingly large proportion of news analysts went considerably beyond what available facts supported in commenting on the events of that day. The result was a verbal pick-me-up, a confused concoction of defensive and aggressive statements ranging all the way from attempts to depricate the enemy's intelligence and minimize the danger on the one hand, to emotional appeals based on exaggerated retaliatory capacities or moral and intellectual superiority on the other.

It might be argued that such a position is justifiable, even desirable in a crisis. Such a commentator, it may be said, "reassures" the people, keeps them from losing all control, and lets them down easier to the blow that they must ultimately face up to. In a democratic society predicated on faith in the many, rather than an elite, superior few, such logic appears somewhat feeble. It is one thing to tell a person he has suffered a serious personal loss in a compassionate way and with rational concern for the consequences. It is quite another to imply that maybe the loss really didn't occur at all, or if it did its importance is after all questionable. If our system is based on the premise of freedom of information, that implies not only the freedom to express unpopular beliefs and minority viewpoints, but the responsibility to listen to and evaluate the unpopular and the unpleasant as well.

In opposition to the questionable policy of "soft-pedaling" or "playing-down" bad news, the broadcasts that day themselves suggest that those who were well informed, even though they were located in positions of greater danger, were far more rational

than those, either on the spot or back home, who lacked what facts were known and who supplied their own answers via wishful thinking tempered by unexpressed fears for the worst. Those on the scene spoke mainly, and reliably, of *effects*. Those back home dealt principally, and often inaccurately, with the *causes*.

To understand the implications of this, one must consider the role of the news reporter and the news commentator in our society. The man on the spot who presumably has accurate information is, under the stress of the moment in a crisis, generally less able (and sometimes less qualified) to take the broad view of events required for intelligent interpretation.

This analytical role, it is usually reasoned, belongs to a commentator who, with additional facts at his disposal, can view events dispassionately and with greater perspective on the situation as a whole. In recent years an encouraging development has been the assignment of more and more analysts to overseas tours of duty so that they might broadcast their commentary from abroad. But when accurate information is lacking, the home based commentator's role becomes an extremely difficult one.

Most radio (and now TV) news analysts have always worked in a market where each is in competition with the other for an audience. The eye of a sponsor is usually somewhere in the background. If it does not often selectively scan the news content itself it is certainly always focused on the size of the audience the commentator is drawing. With the development of the cult of the news "personalities" we have come to regard our commentators as much entertainer as oracle. In addition to his distinctive "delivery style" and his "audience appeal," the news analyst's reputation is based upon his ability to provide intelligent, rational, accurate assessments of problems and answers to questions *in the mind of his particular following*. When the chips are down that audience expects him to live up to his reputation. Otherwise he runs the risk of temporarily relinquishing his image (sometimes self-created) as the man who knows, the one capable of seeing beneath the issues on the surface.

On December 7th, surrounded by anxiety and uncertainties, many of our commentators proved all too human in succumbing

to the temptation of having a right answer, reasonable sounding for the moment at least. Some simply up-dated day dreams and kept passing them on to the public almost as if the soap opera had never been interrupted by the momentous events of that tragic day.

From the hind-sight of twenty years it is easy now to sit back and Sunday-quarterback. That is not the intended purpose in recalling these events to mind. Nor will it be argued that our basic and long-cherished "right to know" may at times be overridden by factors of greater magnitude such as our "need to survive." What is suggested is that we may have missed the more subtle, yet equally important, meaning of the Pearl Harbor disaster.

Looking back now one can easily fit together a dozen clues which we knew about in advance of the attack but which were discounted or somehow never got to the right people quickly enough to alter the course of events. The catastrophe of December 7, 1941, was as much due to rationalization, inaccuracy, and lack of coordination in our communications as it was to our inadequate preparedness for surprise attack.

In a world where the pace has accelerated many fold in twenty years the real message of Pearl Harbor may be that our "need to survive" is inextricably linked to, if not dependent on, our "need to know." In any future war we may expect no "notice" nor any "fair play of warfare" that Commentator Lewis denounced on December 7th. But the responsibility for averting such a war goes far beyond improving our intelligence network or our military communications. It resides as much with the sovereign people of the United States and the other world powers as it does with their leaders. Few dictators have been able indefinitely to ignore the organized will of an aroused people. In democracies, if the channels of mass communication are frequently utilized by our elected representatives to bring us around to the course of action they have already decided upon, let us not forget that it is within our power to use these same channels to inform them of our will in these matters.

In recent times there is some doubt whether the feedback aspect of democratic communications has been making any headway

against a veritable deluge of information from the opposite direction. It is alarming, for example, to speculate on how little popular protest we probably would have heard even if the American people had known in advance the extent of this government's involvement in the ill-fated Cuba invasion. Such a response (or, more precisely, lack of one) would probably have been due less to unflinching support of administration decisions—right or wrong, than to a lack of awareness of possible alternatives or limitations of the proposed course of action.

We live in an era when most of us get most of our information from one or another of the mass media. Super-speed and technical accuracy of communication are today commonplace both throughout this planet and beyond it. Yet twenty years after Pearl Harbor we still accept as inevitable: (1) inaccurate reporting of critical events, (2) confusion as to what kinds of facts should be withheld for the common good and what information is needed by the public to exercise its legitimate role in government, (3) frequent misinterpretation or deliberate falsification of "facts" by special interest groups, and (4) a tenacious preference for the myth of "what could be" over the reality of "what is."

There is no simple answer for the problem here illustrated; no sinecure, no formula for eradicating human frailties overnight. Nor does the weakness lie only with the speaker and not his listeners in an era when all forces interact upon each other.

"Responsibility" is not a characteristic which can be legislated into existence. Like "wisdom," it must sometimes be acquired through a long and painful series of lessons that remain in our memory. In "remembering Pearl Harbor" on this twentieth anniversary, it would be well to set out anew in pursuit of those two human goals. Perhaps in so doing we may find the clues we seek in this dilemma. For how to update the democratic handling of communications in a modern world is an inseparable part of our battle for survival.

The Evolution of FM Radio: 1941-1946

As Reported in the Annual Reports of the Federal Communications Commission

The following verbatim extracts from FCC ANNUAL REPORTS *are part of a continuing series published in the* JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING *that includes: "The Evolution of Television: 1927-1943" (Summer, 1960); "The Evolution of Television: 1944-1948" (Winter, 1960-61); and "The Evolution of FM Radio: 1935-1940" (Spring, 1961).*

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Seventh Annual Report of the FCC — 1941

High Frequency (FM) Broadcast Service (pp. 30-31)—A review of the steps leading to the authorization, in the spring of 1940, of frequency modulation (FM) on a commercial basis was included in the Sixth Annual Report of the Commission. Further refinements have been made in receivers, transmitting equipment, and antenna systems. At the close of the fiscal year approximately 14 manufacturers were active in the production of FM receivers. Available information indicates that as of November 1941 there are some 120,000 FM receivers in public use, with production estimated at about 1,500 sets a day. The majority of the FM receivers now sold receive standard band as well as FM broadcast.

Authorizations. The first construction permits for commercial high frequency (FM) broadcast stations were issued by the Commission on October 31, 1940. As of December 1, 1941, there were 67 commercial FM authorizations and 43 applications pending. Eleven construction permits had been granted for stations for the New York City area, and pending applications far exceeded remaining facilities there.

Of interest are two particular authorizations. The first is for a station to be located on Mount Washington, N. H., antenna elevation 6,300 feet, which will serve an area of 31,000 square miles. Approximately three-fourths of a million people are within satisfactory service range of this station who do not have satisfactory

reception of standard broadcast stations. The second permit is for construction of a station on Clingman's Peak, N. C., antenna elevation 6,875 feet, to cover 69,400 square miles. In this area, particularly in the summer months, standard band coverage is not adequate during the daytime. High frequency broadcast stations have distinct possibilities for rural coverage, particularly where high natural transmitter sites are available and the standard band coverage is relatively poor because of static and low ground conductivity.

Changes in Rules. For the purpose of obtaining more effective use of the limited number of channels available for high frequency broadcast stations, the Commission on October 3, 1940, amended the rules so as to clarify requirements as to the areas to be served. The rules previously contemplated that the service area should be commensurate with the common cultural, economic, social, or other characteristics which would justify service to the area as a unit. This principle, while fundamentally sound, did not permit for administrative purposes any quantitative definition of such area in any specific case.

A measure of the area of social and economic influence of the city is the retail trade area, the extent of which has been the subject of study by various market research organizations. A number of trade area delineations have been recognized by the Commission for determining, by the Commission and applicants, the areas which should be served. There are approximately 625 "basic trade areas" in the United States, each of which is entitled to one or more stations serving the area in its entirety. The requirement that stations of the same city should serve substantially the same area has been retained.

However, the Commission has established "limited trade areas" for the purpose of permitting stations in cities which are not considered principal cities of "basic trade areas" to serve the sphere of economic and social influence of such cities. These areas are in general much smaller than "basic trade areas."

Twenty-two channels were made available for stations serving basic and limited trade areas centering about cities which have a

population of over 25,000. In addition, 6 channels have been reserved for basic and limited trade areas in which the city of the station has a population of less than 25,000.

Seven channels have been assigned for stations to serve primarily large rural areas which cannot be served satisfactorily otherwise, due to technical or economic limitations. These stations may serve principal cities in "basic trade areas" and other cities provided they do not sacrifice their rural service in so doing.

A "special service area" classification has been established for unusual cases not falling within the foregoing categories, where a definite need therefor is shown and where unfair competition will not arise.

On March 20, 1941, the Commission amended the rules to permit stations to be authorized on a temporary basis to serve less than the "basic trade areas" but at least the metropolitan district of the city upon showing that there is a need for relaxing the basic requirements. This made possible the inauguration of FM service to cities having very large basic trade area in parts of the country where trading centers are widely separated. The Commission also made available 3 frequencies, principally reserved for cities of less less than 25,000 population, for use in cities of greater population which are adjacent to metropolitan districts of more than 1 million.

On December 9, 1940, the Commission conducted an informal engineering conference to consider rating high frequency broadcast transmitters. It resulted in an agreement between equipment manufacturers and the Commission. Consideration was also given to the practical problems related to the technical performance of stations.

The Commission also announced a policy of permitting new high frequency broadcast stations to operate with temporary installations. In many cases the complete equipment has not been immediately available, partly due to material shortages and to national defense obligations assumed by transmitter manufacturers. In this way stations may begin rendering service without waiting for delivery and installation of the final equipment. Provision was made for commercial operation of experimental stations at which frequency modulation was initially field tested,

the licensees of which had been issued commercial construction permits.

Eighth Annual Report of the FCC — 1942

High Frequency (FM) Broadcast Service (pp. 33-34)—With the curtailment of new authorization for FM stations, together with the stoppage of production of broadcast receivers after April 22, 1942, further expansion of FM service is unlikely until after the war.

Authorizations. As of July 1, 1942, 55 construction permits for commercial FM broadcast stations were outstanding and five licenses had been granted. During the year 20 construction permits were granted prior to the adoption of the Memorandum Opinion, and eight authorizations were deleted, the latter generally resulting from the inability of permittees to obtain equipment. Due to this difficulty, a considerable number of stations were operating under special temporary authorizations, using temporary transmitters or antennas and serving areas smaller than specified by the terms of the construction permits. At the close of the year, ten experimental high frequency broadcast stations were continuing to operate in the FM band under special authorizations, and seven of these stations had applications for commercial FM station authorizations either pending or granted.

Rules. No changes in the rules governing this service were made during the year; however, due to the shortage of materials, equipment, and skilled personnel necessary to broadcasting, the Commission on August 4, 1942, announced that holders of construction permits for FM stations may obtain licenses during the war to operate presently existing facilities, provided construction has reached a point where a substantial public service can be rendered. License applications submitted under this policy must include a showing of diligence in proceeding with construction and the applicant's willingness to proceed to final construction when equipment and personnel become available.

Although the rules permit the use of simultaneous facsimile transmission by high frequency broadcast stations, only limited interest has been shown in such operation and some technical difficulties have arisen in its application.

Ninth Annual Report of the FCC — 1943

High Frequency (FM) Broadcast Service (pp. 54-56)—It is noteworthy that while several stations have had to operate with reduced power and hours of operation, no station in this new field has ceased broadcasting activity during the war, although hampered by loss of personnel, difficulty in obtaining replacement tubes and equipment, general financial loss from operation, and limited distribution of FM receiving sets. The construction of high frequency (FM) broadcast stations continues to be restricted, in accordance with the Memorandum Opinion of April 27, 1942. Three new stations were authorized in this service during the year, where existing experimental or other previously authorized equipment was employed. The total number of FM stations authorized decreased from 61 to 48, due to the expiration of a number of construction permits for which equipment was not available. At the close of the fiscal year 41 stations were in operation, in addition to six experimental high frequency broadcast stations also furnishing FM programs.

On August 4, 1942, the Commission announced that it would issue wartime licenses for FM stations for the operation of existing facilities, provided construction had reached a point where a substantial public service could be rendered. Applications for licenses under this policy require a showing of diligence in proceeding with construction and willingness to complete construction when equipment and personnel become available. By the close of the fiscal year, 26 of the FM stations authorized had been licensed under this policy and several others either had applied or were preparing to file applications for such wartime licenses, with their stations in operation under program tests or other authorization. Ten FM stations have received regular licenses following completion of construction and testing.

On February 23, 1943, the Commission announced that because of the shortage of material, equipment, and skilled personnel and in order to sustain interest in high frequency (FM) broadcasting (and television, as later described), it would not dismiss applications for such facilities that are contrary to the provisions of the Memorandum Opinion of April 27, 1942, but instead would retain such applications in the pending files of the Com-

mission without present action. This policy also provided for the reinstatement of FM applications which had been dismissed under the Memorandum Opinion. New FM applications, as well as applications refiled for authorizations which had previously been granted but which had been permitted to expire due to wartime difficulties, are retained in the pending files instead of being dismissed pursuant to the Memorandum Opinion.

Several FM rules were waived during the year. On March 30, 1943, the Commission adopted Order No. 111, permitting FM stations to furnish the required minimum six hours daily of programs during any part of the broadcast day. Previously it was necessary to operate at least three hours before 6:00 p.m. and three hours after 6:00 p.m. each day (Sundays excepted) in accordance with Section 3.261 of the rules. To insure that at least a partially independent program service is furnished to FM listeners, the Commission has heretofore required that a minimum of two hours daily of the broadcast schedule consist of programs not duplicated in the area by a standard or other FM broadcast station. However, because of the increasing shortage of manpower, the Commission on July 6, 1943, adopted Order No. 111-A, relaxing this requirement and permitting FM broadcast station licensees (who generally also have a standard broadcast station) to use duplicated program material for all FM programs if necessary. One method of alleviating the manpower shortage has been adopted in Philadelphia where the five FM stations each broadcast one day out of five in accordance with a cooperative arrangement approved by the Commission.

On March 30, 1943 Order No. 112 was adopted, suspending until further notice the rule (Sec. 3.229) requiring FM stations to make field intensity measurements of station coverage. Such coverage surveys, which indicate the correlation of a station's service area with the area authorized, require skilled personnel and mobile measuring equipment.

On August 24, 1943 the Commission adopted letter calls for FM stations, effective November 1, 1943, replacing the letter-numeral combinations (like K37LA) previously used. Under the old system the two figures indicated assigned frequency and the final letter or letters indicated the city in which the station is

located. Thus, the call K37LA denotes a station operating on *43,700* kc at Los Angeles and W45D a station on *44,500* kc at Detroit. Licensees of FM stations found, however, that the letter-numeral system was somewhat cumbersome and did not meet with general public acceptance. In addition, a change in frequency would require a change in call, causing some confusion.

The new system provides four-letter calls for FM stations like those used in standard broadcasting, television and most other services. Licensees may request particular call letter combinations from those available for assignment. An FM broadcaster who also has a standard broadcast station in the same city may, if he so desires, be assigned the call letters of the standard broadcast station plus the suffix "FM". For example, a standard broadcast station with the call KQO may thus use "KQO-FM" as identification for the FM broadcast station.

Tenth Annual Report of the FCC — 1944

High Frequency (FM) Broadcast Service—Four additional high frequency (FM) broadcast stations were authorized. These stations were previously in operation as experimental stations and the authorization for commercial operation did not require the use of substantial amounts of material. Otherwise, however, no construction permits for new FM stations have been granted under the wartime "freeze" policies.

As of June 30, 1944, FM program service was being furnished by 47 stations, including three experimental high frequency broadcast stations. Except for ten stations which had previously completed full construction and testing, all commercial FM stations in operation have been issued wartime licenses to cover partial construction. This policy, which was adopted August 4, 1942, has provided a practicable arrangement for wartime operation of FM stations. Although FM stations are required to operate a minimum of six hours per day (excluding Sunday), stations in some areas are furnishing a program service throughout the day and evening, and it is estimated that approximately one-half million FM receiving sets are in use. To assist in alleviating the manpower shortage, Order No. 111-A was adopted on July 6,

1943, to permit FM stations to use duplicated material for all FM programs if necessary. Previously it was required that a minimum of two hours of the daily broadcast schedule consist of programs not duplicated in the same area by a standard or by another FM broadcast station. Most of the existing FM stations are operated by licensees of standard broadcast stations and therefore have program material readily available.

On August 24, 1943, the Commission adopted letter calls for FM stations, effective November 1, 1943. This system replaced the letter-numeral system *[described on pp. 304-305]*. Licensees found that the letter-numeral system was somewhat cumbersome and that it did not meet with general favor. One complication arose when stations changed frequency and required a change of call letters. The new system provides four-letter calls like those used in standard broadcasting and in many other services. An FM broadcaster who also has a standard broadcast station may, if he desires, be assigned the standard broadcast station call letters with the suffix "FM". Thus the licensee of a standard broadcast station with the call "WABC" may be assigned "WABC-FM" for the FM station.

A great deal of interest has been shown in establishing FM broadcast stations after the war, and it is expected that as soon as personnel and materials are available a large expansion will begin. Indicative of this is the fact that as of June 30, 1944, 202 applications requesting construction permits for new FM stations were on file with the Commission. Inasmuch as these applications are contrary to the provisions of the Memorandum Opinion of April 27, 1942, they are not being granted at this time. However, the Commission has continued to apply its policy of February 23, 1943, in which it stated that applications for FM (and television) broadcast stations would not be dismissed, but would be retained in the pending files without present action. Although the majority of the pending applications have been filed by the licensees of standard broadcast stations, a considerable portion have been submitted by applicants new to radio broadcasting.

Eleventh Annual Report of the FCC — 1945

Frequency Modulation (FM) Broadcast Service (pp. 19-21)— The only new FM station authorized during the year was an

existing experimental station which was granted permission to operate on a commercial basis. As of June 30, 1945, 53 commercial FM broadcast stations were authorized, 46 being licensed and in regulation operation. Although the Commission's rules provide for a minimum daily operating schedule of 6 hours per day (except Sunday), some stations are furnishing a program service throughout the day and evening.

The large amount of interest in FM is indicated by the 429 applications for new stations on file at the end of the fiscal year and hundreds of requests for information and application forms. Predictions by witnesses at the allocation hearing indicated the possible establishment of several thousand FM stations within a few years after the war, or several times the number of standard broadcast stations now in operation.

The choice of channel space for FM broadcasting was the subject of a thorough review by the Commission at the frequency allocation hearing. For several years there had been concern that FM broadcasting in the vicinity of 50 megacycles would be subject to serious skywave interference, nullifying to a great extent the possibilities of interference-free reception expected of FM. The Commission has been conducting a recording program for over 2 years, measuring the extent and intensity of skywave signals from existing FM stations; the data collected during this program served to emphasize the amount of interference that would be expected when a large number of FM stations were installed and in operation in the vicinity of 50 megacycles. There was divergence of opinion as to the expected amount and effect of skywave interference in the future, some believing that the characteristics of FM transmission and reception would serve to minimize the deleterious effects of skywave transmission, and others believing that the service would be severely degraded during summer seasons and during times of high sunspot activity. Following the allocation hearing the Commission proposed to place FM in the vicinity of 100 megacycles. In order to obtain additional data relating to radio wave propagation, a closed hearing was held on March 12 and 13, 1945, since much of this material was classified. This hearing was attended by the Commission, members of its staff, and industry and broadcasting personnel who had been cleared by the military for the purpose.

Since it appeared at the time that the production of FM equipment could not be resumed in 1945, or even in the first part of 1946 unless Japan capitulated, and since the Commission desired to have as much information as possible before it prior to making a decision about the FM band, the Commission announced on May 25 that it would withhold the allocation for FM pending further propagation measurements to be made during the summer of 1945. Subsequently, however, the War Production Board advised the Commission that the manufacture of FM, AM and television transmitters and receivers might begin at an earlier date than was originally indicated to the Commission, and that it would probably not be possible for the War Production Board to give 90 days advance notice to the Commission before the resumption of production. Accordingly, the Commission on June 5, 1945, ordered a further argument and hearing in order that a final decision might be reached at the earliest possible date.

Many factors are involved in a decision of this nature, including ground wave coverage, skywave interference, transmitting and receiving equipment, present investment, and other matters of a minor character. Based on the testimony and data before it, the Commission was convinced that a superior FM broadcast service would be furnished by operation in the vicinity of 100 megacycles and accordingly, on June 27, 1945, it allocated the band of 88 to 92 megacycles for noncommercial educational FM broadcasting and the band of 92 to 106 megacycles for commercial FM broadcasting. In addition, the band of 106 to 108 megacycles was allocated to facsimile, with the provision that if in the future this band would not be required for facsimile, it would be available for FM.

Twelfth Annual Report of the FCC — 1946

Freqency Modulation (FM) Broadcast (pp. 15-17)—Rapid postwar expansion of FM broadcasting is indicated in the mounting number of authorizations and applications for this new medium of program service.

Removal of the wartime "freeze" on construction enabled the Commission to consider an accumulation of about 600 applications for commercial FM stations. Since most of these had been filed

under the old rules and needed additional information, the Commission expedited matters by making conditional grants subject to later approval of engineering and other details. The first group of FM grants on this basis was announced in October of 1945.

The result was that the 48 FM broadcast stations functioning at the close of the war began to be augmented as quickly as materials and personnel could be obtained. At the close of the fiscal year, 55 FM stations were serving 32 cities and surrounding rural areas, 456 new stations had received initial authorizations, and some 250 applications were pending.

Because of reconversion problems, the Commission permitted low-power units to be used by stations while new equipment was being manufactured. At the request of the Senate Small Business Committee, the Commission made a survey of probable prices and delivery dates for principal items of equipment for FM stations. The results were summarized in a Commission release in December 1945 and later appeared in a booklet issued by the Committee as an aid to those interested in entering this field.

During frequency allocation hearings in the previous fiscal year FM received important consideration. This service had started on the 42-50 megacycle band, but troublesome skywave interference developed. "Public interest," pointed out the Commission, "requires that FM be established in a permanent place in the radio spectrum before a considerable investment is made by the listening public in receiving sets and by the broadcasters in transmitting equipment." Accordingly, in June of 1945, the Commission allocated the band 50 to 106 megacycles for FM, including 70 channels for commercial FM service and 20 channels for noncommercial educational FM broadcast. In addition, the band 106-108 megacycles (10 channels) was made available to facsimile with provision that it might later be utilized by FM.

In January of 1946, the Commission heard a petition requesting restoration of the old FM band. Upon analyzing the testimony and data, the Commission concluded that the use of two bands for FM broadcasting was undesirable, that interference would continue to be a serious problem on the old band, and that an excellent FM service would be provided in the high band. Ac-

cordingly, stations on the 42-44 megacycle band were given until January 1, 1947, to make the transition.

During the summer of 1945, the Commission held conferences and hearings to determine what changes were desirable for FM, and these were incorporated in new rules and engineering standards adopted the following August and September. Channel and power assignments were made in the new band, with provision for use of interim equipment until full construction authorized by the new assignment could be completed. Having thus encouraged early commencement of this new service, the Commission in July of 1946 warned that if grantees and permittees were not diligent in getting started they would be subject to hearing to determine whether their grants should be cancelled.

At the beginning of 1946 it was estimated that about half a million FM receivers (most of them capable of receiving standard broadcast) were in use. A Commission survey in February indicated that only 9 percent (1,800,000 sets) of the contemplated 1946 receiver production would include FM. Accordingly, manufacturers were urged to provide a greater percentage of sets capable of receiving the new service.

Equitable distribution of FM facilities was provided in a tentative nation-wide allocation plan for the 60 metropolitan and rural channels. This was used as a basis in making assignments and in designating for hearing applications for areas where the number of requests exceeded the number of available channels.

In May 1946 the Commission announced proposed rules reducing the then three classes of FM stations to two, to be termed Class A (formerly community) and Class B (formerly metropolitan and rural), which were adopted in July.

Following a hearing in July 1946 on requests for reservation of FM channels, the Commission announced that it would reserve, until June 30, 1947, every fifth channel in cities or areas where five or more Class B channels were tentatively allocated. No allocation plan or reservation policy applies to the 20 Class A channels, and it is expected that these channels will be available indefinitely for all but the most congested areas.

The End of Nicaragua's Radio Freedom

BY MARVIN ALISKY

The very conflict over obscure points of law and regulation and their relation to the First Amendment hides for broadcasters in the United States the far more serious plight of broadcasters in other American nations. The conditions in Nicaragua fluctuate between complete repression of objective news programing and a limited amount of freedom. In other countries, notably Cuba, broadcasting has suffered greater loss—not merely in repression or physical damage, but in its own professional ethic, its reason for existence.

Professor Alisky is Chairman of the Department of Mass Communications at Arizona State University. Materials for this article were gathered during trips to Nicaragua in 1951 and 1954, as well as during the summer of 1960, while acting as an NBC correspondent and a teacher of broadcasting in Nicaragua.

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A CLASH between a cynical dictatorship and pro-Castro agitators killed radio freedom in the Central American republic of Nicaragua during July 1960. The leftwing rioters and the rightwing Somoza regime were equally unfriendly to the responsible moderates trying to air newscasts in the capital city of Managua. After bombings and street fights gave the pretext, the government marched soldiers into the few radio stations offering impartial newscasts and prohibited any "political" reporting, which in the opinion of the censors covered most Nicaraguan public affairs.[1]

Radio is the principal means of reaching the masses in this country of approximately 1,700,000 inhabitants. The Ministry of Education admits to 61% illiteracy,[2] but UNESCO figures list almost 80%.[3] There are only seven daily newspapers in the entire republic, six of them in Managua. The Somoza regime owns or controls three of them, periodically suspends a fourth, pressures another into neutrality. Only *La Prensa* consistently reports what is really happening inside Nicaragua. This daily and the small journalism school constitute the showcase "democracy" of the dictatorship. The Somoza regime cites both when maneuvering

for a good corporate image abroad. Yet almost unheralded, the government controls radio tightly. Broadcasting regulations flatly forbid political reporting or commentary.[4]

The capital, Managua, with 200,000 population, contains eleven radio stations: Radio Mundial, Estación X, Unión Radio, Voz de la Victoria, Radio Deportes, Radio Managua, Radio Continental, Radio Centauro, Radio Reloj, Radio Noticias, and Radio Católica.[5]

Three stations—Radio Mundial, Radio Noticias, and Unión Radio—attempted to report the news fully from December 31, 1959, when complete censorship of press and radio was ended, according to the governmental announcement of the time, until late in July 1960, when censorship of radio returned.

Of the others, Radio Católica concerns itself with church and religious matters, being owned directly by the Catholic Church and financed by voluntary contributions. Radio Reloj, which translates as Timepiece Radio, features the correct time every five minutes, plus weather reports and popular recordings. Radio Deportes fills most of its non-musical air time with sports news and tape recorded play-by-play reports of baseball and soccer games. Radio Centauro features classical music, and some evenings entire operas. In the daytime it often airs semi-classical music. Station X is owned and controled by President Somoza. Its newscasts never include stories or comments critical of the government but often statements of praise. Radio Managua, Radio Continental, and Radio Victoria feature popular music, with brief headline news which never expands beyond the most concise statements. Only the three stations attempting full newscasts and independent commentary became the targets of the dictator's anger.

General Anastasio Somoza, who already controlled the army at the time, became president in 1937. For almost two decades he ruled with force, silencing newspapermen and broadcasters who got out of line, and who dared to criticize the government. Some were exiled, some were killed, but most were jailed.[6] In September 1956, he was assassinated, and his son Luis became president, with the younger son Anastasio Jr. becoming general of the National Guard and Police, the republic's only armed force. The current regime has made an effort to create a picture of tolerance, and

actually represents a more humane administration than that of their late father.

The enemies of the Somozas are many and range from the far left to the far right: Communists, Castro agents, promisers of Utopia, disgruntled middle-of-the-road businessmen, Catholic priests, large land owners, and especially the university students and intellectuals.

When discontent translated itself into angry criticism and street riots in 1958 and 1959, press and radio censorship again became the rule. By contrast, the first half of 1960 found no official censorship in Nicaragua.

The Somozas did control some of the newspapers and a few radio stations and the only television station, YNSA-TV. But Radio Mundial and Unión Radio were allowed to air full newscasts and even commentaries. Press and broadcasting freedom seemed entrenched when the author began classes in the new journalism school June 3, 1960. But by July the situation had deteriorated. Somoza newsmen would have little to do with the school, where the professors were stressing objective reporting instead of subjective praise of the government. The Somoza newspapers and radio stations slavishly slant in accordance with the Somozas' wishes, even to the point of inserting complimentary adjectives into AP and UPI wire copy to make the stories fit the governmental line. The school remains open but the small enrollment did not increase.

On the anniversary in 1960 of the killing of four university students in the provincial city of León by the police for leading a political rally of anti-Somoza groups on July 23, 1959, students in both León and Managua wore black ties in mourning for the martyrs. This led to new street fighting, with the police cuffiing teenagers, wounding several, and killing a preparatory school student. Witnesses to the new killing attempted to enter the Radio Mundial building to be interviewed but were prevented from going in by soldiers. When a radio newsman then tried to interview the witnesses on the street, soldiers broke up the gathering with rifle butts.

On July 24, 1960, army troops entered the newsrooms of those Nicaraguan radio stations known to have either a teletype ma-

chine or a reporter or editor. (A majority of the Nicaraguan stations do not maintain news departments of any kind.)

Direct censorship of radio had returned. However, in June 1961, President Somoza formally ended the 1960 State of Siege, the Latin American version of martial law. This action lessened the formal censorship, but pressures remained.

Footnotes

[1]*La Prensa*, Managua's independent conservative daily, reports on radio censorship, July 24, 25, 26, 27, and August 3 and 10, 1960.

[2]Dirección General de Estadística y Censos, *Boletín de Estadística*, No. 5, 1960, pp. 1-10.

[3]Max H. Miñano García, "Informe, Proyecto Piloto" (typewritten), UNESCO, Managua, July 1960.

[4]Ministerio de Gobernación, *Código de Radio y Televisión*, Managua, August 1960. Under Title II, Jurisdiction, Article 7 gives the Minister of Government (chief cabinet officer) the right to silence a station for "disturbing public order." It states: "Cuidar de que las transmisiones de radio y televisión no perturben el orden y la paz pública, no provoque la comisión de algun delito . . ." Almost anything could be construed to provoke disorder or disturb the public peace. The protestations of the owners or managers of Radio Mundial, Unión Radio, and Radio Centauro were ignored by Congress, which is controlled by the President. The new restrictive broadcasting regulation was quickly passed on August 3, 1960, by an overwhelming congressional majority.

[5]Throughout Latin America, most stations are called by a slogan or catch word, not by the call letters they officially possess. Radio Mundial officially is YNW.

[6]See Marvin Alisky, "Mass Media in Central America," *Journalism Quarterly*, Fall 1955, pp. 479-486, and "Central American Radio," *Quarterly of Film, Radio and Television*, Fall 1955, pp. 51-63. O. Gondi, "All Nicaragua is His Hacienda," *United Nations World*, March 1948, pp. 30-33.

Public Opinion on Tax-Supported Television

BY JOHN B. HANEY

Does the existence of government-run educational television stations cause public anxiety or resentment? The following study was financed by the National Educational Television and Radio Center at the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan. The author is Associate Professor of English at the U.S. Air Force Academy and head of its television and film division. Captain Haney received his Ph.D. from the University of Michigan and is first vice-president of the National Society for the Study of Communication.

• • •

"MY answer to the question 'Should educational television be developed with state funds?' is an emphatic 'NO!' " said Mr. George L. Nichols of the Citizens Public Expenditure Survey of Albany, New York, in an open forum broadcast at Skidmore College in 1953. He continued, ". . . the proponents of this educational TV network talk about using it to bring culture to the public. Do you want state-approved culture? This is getting dangerously close to the methods employed in the police state."[1]

The proposal for a state-wide educational television network did not pass the New York legislature.

Today we find state ETV networks in Alabama, Oklahoma, and Florida—but these represent the survivors of a host of proposals which started through various legislative mills during the past eight years and were killed off in the process. For example, of eleven initial plans of state departments of education for networks of state owned-an-operated ETV stations, only two were passed by state legislatures.[2]

Because ETV networks—and even single stations—cost sizable sums of state money, they have almost universally encountered the organized opposition of taxpayer groups. While school superintendents, college professors, state education department officials, and others presented the case for educational television to

the legislatures and to the general public, the citizens public expenditure groups and taxpayer foundations countered with pamphlets, lectures, public debates, and mimeographed "fact sheets."

The opposition continues at the present time, when the expansion of educational television activity as well as the transference of much of the support for existing ETV stations from the foundations to the regular sources of revenue for education calls for more public funds—Federal, state, and local. In deciding whether or not to appropriate money for educational television, the public decision makers have a much sounder basis for action than they had in the period from 1953 to 1957. ETV broadcasting has compiled a record of performance by which its merits can be established and its proponents' claims and hopes can be measured.

However, much of the opponents' arguments are not in denial of the merits of educational television, but rather are based on a series of "evils" which *might* result from ETV broadcasting by governmental agencies. One example is the statement of Mr. Nichols, which opened this article. The principal "evils" raised by opponents can be classified in the following groups:

1. ETV stations might be used by governmental departments as a state-wide medium for political propaganda for the agencies themselves or for the party in power.
2. ETV broadcasting would move government further into the province of commercial enterprise; ETV stations would be another example of government going into competition with private businesses.
3. ETV stations owned-and-operated by state educational commissions would bring a rigidly controlled curriculum into the schools and a "state-approved culture" into the homes.
4. ETV stations would take educators' interests away from the pupils in the classrooms in the attempt to "emulate Broadway and Hollywood."

Just as the record of ETV's actual performance can be examined to learn whether or not the claims of its proponents are justified, it can be examined to see if the "evils" set forth by opponents have materialized.

But discounting potential "evils" is not as easy as supporting merits. Opponents charge that an evil *might* result; therefore, the fact that such evils have not actually resulted from existing ETV station operation does not remove their possibility. In such a situation, the *threat* of an evil becomes a powerful propaganda tool.

In weighing such arguments by opponents of government owned-and-operated ETV stations, the public decision makers—be they a legislature, a school board, or the Congress—have two guides, one empirical and the other political. The first has already been mentioned: analyse the operation of existing governmental ETV stations. The second is to determine to what extent the fear of these "evils" is held by the general public. Such findings would reveal if the anti-public expenditure lobbies are expressing widely-held attitudes, or if they are sending up a rhetorical smokescreen to mask their basic objections, which have nothing to do with educational television *per se:* simply that they are against any and all proposals which necessitate additional taxation.

Method

To find out public attitudes toward governmental ownership and operation of educational television stations, the Detroit Area Study of the Survey Research Center and the Department of Sociology of the University of Michigan included some questions on this matter as part of a general study of public attitudes toward the use of tax-money to support educational television activities.[3]

The 748 respondents to this survey comprise a close approximation of a simple random sampling of the adult population of the Detroit Metropolitan Area during 1959.[4] At the time of the survey, Detroit's UHF educational television station had been broadcasting for three years, educational programs had been carried by the commercial stations for eight years, and the public schools had been broadcasting in-school televised lessons for two years.

To get responses that would provide meaningful data, it was first necessary to make operational the concept of "government ownership and operation of educational television stations," and this meant abstracting it from any specific proposal for governmental ETV stations. For example, a question phrased "Do you

think it is a good idea, or not, for the State of Michigan to own and operate educational television stations?" would be "double-barrelled:" that is, it would ask for the respondent's opinion on both the idea of governmental ownership and on a proposal for some state ETV stations in Michigan.

So as a result of extensive pre-testing, the investigator decided on the wording "Apart from the cost, do you think it is a good idea, or not, to have the educational television stations be run by the people who run the schools?" The assumption is that there are going to be educational television stations and with this wording the respondent need not consider whether or not there should be. The phrase "the people who run the schools" does not explicitly state "the government," but it is a reasonable description of state and local governmental school agencies.

There remains, however, a certain dual consideration in the question: the idea of the *government* running ETV stations and the idea of *educators* running them. Since a respondent's objection to either point would bring forth a negative answer, all respondents who stated that they do *not* think it a good idea for the ETV stations to be run by the people who run the schools were asked an open-ended follow-up question, "Why do you feel this way?" Their answers to this question would reveal the basis for their objection.

Results

In the adult population of the Detroit Metropolitan Area, the answers to the question "Apart from the cost, do you think it is a good idea, or not, to have the educational television stations be run by the people who run the schools?" show that 75% consider it a "good idea"; 14% consider it "not a good idea"; and 11% "don't know." In other words, *people appear to be five times more likely to think that educator-run ETV stations are a good idea than not.*

Next the investigator compared the people in the "good idea" group with those in the "not a good idea" group, by demographic, socio-economic and attitudinal data. There are no significant differences by sex, race, marital status, occupation of the head of the household, or political party. Slightly increased percentages of

persons in two categories are in the "not a good idea" group—persons who are 60-years-and-older and persons who are not high school graduates—than are younger persons and those with more education. The proportion in the "good idea" group increases with the number of public agencies and services which the respondents have contact with, and the trend becomes more pronounced with the number of clubs and organizations belonged to.

As a part of the larger study of public attitudes toward the use of tax-money for ETV activities, the population was divided into three groups according to familiarity with certain ETV operations: the University of Michigan Television Hour, the ETV (Channel 56) broadcasting into homes, and in-school televised lessons. As the answers to the educator-run ETV station question are distributed among persons in three groups according to level of familiarity with ETV—high, middle, and low—a definite trend emerges to show a positive relationship between level of familiarity with ETV activities and stating that it would be a good idea to have the ETV stations run by the people who run the schools. Incidentally, the Detroit ETV station is run by a private non-profit corporation, although approximately one-third of its broadcasts are put on by the Detroit Public Schools, originating in public school studios.

Respondents who stated that they think educator-run ETV stations not a good idea were asked "Why do you feel this way?" The purpose of this question is to find out to what extent the fears and objections of opponents of government owned-and-operated ETV stations are shared by the general public. For this information, it was necessary to ask only negative respondents, or 14% of all respondents. The answers to this question show the frequency distribution presented in the following table. On the survey form there was provision for recording up to two reasons from each respondent; no special weight is attached to the order that a reason was mentioned.

The reasons presented in the following table represent general categories for many individual and specific answers which the respondents gave. Each category will have more meaning if the answers are handled descriptively as well as statistically, especially in view of the small number of cases.

TABLE I

Reasons for Thinking Educator-Run ETV Stations Not a Good Idea

Reasons	Frequency of Mention	
	As 1st Reason	As 2nd Reason
TV stations should be run by private enterprise	12	1
Educators not qualified to run TV	27	5
Educators too busy to run TV	13	3
Lack of confidence in educators, regardless of TV issue	13	1
Possible government interference	4	1
Doesn't like ETV—period.	7	2
It would mean more taxes	3	0
Has obvious misconception of ETV	6	0
Can't think of any reasons	18	0
Number of cases responding that educator-run ETV stations are not a good idea.	103 (14% of N)	

Educators are not qualified to run ETV stations.—This is the reason mentioned most frequently. It was offered by 31% of negative respondents; less than 5% of all respondents. In many cases, the respondent did not question the competence of educators in their own field, but they did in the field of television—even educational television. Typical of these responses were these:

> It takes expert people to put over a TV show. It's an art in itself and educators can't do it.
>
> I feel they know their business, but not the TV business.
>
> Because school people are not specialized in this field. It would be like a dentist giving an appendectomy.

From such statements one might infer that it is not universally understood that the people who run the schools usually employ television specialists for production.

Educators are too busy to run TV.—The second most frequently mentioned (by 15% of the negative group) is that educators are or should be so busy running the schools that they would not have time to run an educational television station. Most of the persons

who gave this reason phrased it as a rhetorical question. The following are typical of such responses:

> Because how can they do two things at once?—the class on one side and TV too.
>
> How can they have time to run a TV?

Evidently the respondents did not consider an increase in personnel to handle the ETV station operation.

Lack of confidence in educators.—The next most frequently mentioned reason, given by 13% of the negative group, shows that some people do not have a high regard for educators, regardless of the issue of educational television. In other words, some respondents felt that educators should not run ETV stations because for some reason or other the respondents do not think much of educators. They give such reasons as these:

> They might have a biased opinion of what they do and don't wancha *[sic.*, the interviewer's spelling*]* to learn.
>
> There is too much liberal thinking in our educators today.
>
> I think the educational authorities are too remote in their ivory tower. They're too stuffy.
>
> They fail in running the schools, so they wouldn't do a good job.

This is one reason or argument that seems to be more common in the general public than is found in the writings and speeches of anti-ETV groups.

Television should be run by private enterprise.—This reason, which is a central one in the case of opponents of governmental ETV stations, was also mentioned by 13% of the negative respondents, comprising less than two per cent of the total population. The following are typical of responses in this category:

> Television is primarily for industry because they have the money.
>
> Taxes pay the school people—the radio stations should hire people to do this [educational programming] instead of other things they do.

Such reasons seem to imply that government should not engage in educational television because commercial TV broadcasters (often referred to by respondents as the "radio stations") should

do it, at no cost to the taxpayer. Many responses in this category were based on such financial considerations.

A few answers, however, show that the respondent was thinking of the effect on television programming of governmental ownership as compared to private ownership.

> If a program doesn't go over, the sponsor will drop it if it isn't of value—whereas government would keep it on even if no good.

The issue of public versus private ownership—"socialism"—was touched on by only two respondents, and even then not using that abstract term.

> It might be a step toward monopolistic tendencies.
>
> That would be taking someone else's job. He'd be out of work then.

The total responses do not show government-versus-private ownership to be a vital issue in the minds of the general public in considering educator-run ETV stations.

Respondent doesn't like ETV.—Persons in this category (7% of the negative group) do not think it is a good idea to have educator-run ETV stations because they do not think it is a good idea to have educational television. They say things like these:

> I consider TV an entertainment and therefore it shouldn't be paid for by local government.
>
> Because a child will not sit down and put his mind to it unless a teacher is right there to watch him.
>
> Kids can't learn from TV.

These responses help explain other findings in the general study, but do not touch on the issues in educator-run ETV stations.

Respondent has misconception of ETV.—Some persons giving negative responses (6% of the negative group) answered as they did through an obvious misconception of how educational television operates. Such responses as,

> If it was run by the people who would run the schools, first grade children wouldn't understand it and older children would already know it,

show that some respondents are unfamiliar with in-school televised lessons, which are broadcast to specific grades at their own

level of understanding. Such responses might help to explain the positive relationship between level of familiarity with ETV activities and the response that it is a good idea for educators to run ETV stations, pointed out earlier in this article.

There is possible governmental interference.—Only one respondent stated directly that ETV stations might be used for other than educational purposes by the government. This response is quoted here:

> Oh, there is too much chance of political activity and propaganda.

A few other respondents expressed vague fears, but it could not be determined from their answers what it is they fear, and how it would affect the public through ETV stations. They made responses such as the following:

> They could have too much control.
>
> They would become powerful—too powerful.

In one case, however, a respondent who answered negatively did not appear to be influenced by a fear of government. He answered,

> I don't feel the school personnel would have the proper know-how. I think the national government should run these stations.

The answers in this category, compared to the total number of respondents, indicate that a fear of governmental influence in education or political propaganda through an ETV station, are not strong influencing factors in a great majority of the public considering educator-run ETV stations.

ETV stations would take more taxes.—Even though the phrase "apart from the cost" was added to the question, some persons (three per cent of the negative group) do not seem to be able to think apart from the cost. A typical answer is this:

> There comes your tax money again, so I figure it would be more or less a waste of time.

Checking this respondent's answers to other questions on the general survey, revealed that this respondent disapproves of all forms of taxation.

Don't know.—Some 18 per cent of the negative group were not able or else declined to state reasons why they feel as they do.

Conclusion

With these findings at hand, public decision makers considering appropriations or legislation for government owned-and-operated educational television stations can have a perspective into which they can put the arguments advanced by opponents of ETV. They can study the record of existing governmental ETV operations to see that the evils cited by opponents have not materialized, and be guided by the findings that the general public doesn't think that they will.

The "state-approved culture" of which Mr. Nelson warns is an abstract scare word. This study shows that the more familiar people are with educational television, the less likely they are to be so scared and the more likely they are to think it is a good idea to have ETV stations run by the people who run the schools.

Footnotes

[1]George L. Nichols, Executive Assistant to the Citizens Public Expenditure Survey, in a radio debate on the "Skidmore College Open Forum," broadcast over station WGY, 7:00-7:30 P.M. on January 19, 1953 (transcript available from the CPES, 100 State Street, Albany, New York).

[2]State of Illinois. *State Governments and Educational Television.* Legislative Council Publication 123, January 1956, p. 5.

[3]John B. Haney. *A Study of Public Attitudes Toward Tax-Support for Educational Television Activities in the Detroit Metropolitan Area.* Unpublished report. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Detroit Area Study, Survey Research Center, 1959.

[4]For a fuller account of the Detroit Area Study, the reader is referred to the following sources:

Ronald Freeman, "The Detroit Area Study: A Training and Research Laboratory in the Community," *American Journal of Sociology*, No. 59, July, 1953, pp. 30-33.

The Detroit Area Study, (Ann Arbor, DAS, 1955), 16 pp.

The area in which the investigation took place is the "Detroit Metropolitan Area," which includes 88% of the Detroit Standard Metropolitan Area as defined by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, excluding outlying areas not divided into census tracts. The number of completed interviews (748), was chosen by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan to be a close approximation of a simple random sampling of the adult residents of the area. At each address in the sample design only one particular adult (selected according to a random table) could be designated as the respondent. From the sample design and the number of completed interviews, it was possible to compute the sampling errors so that all of the percentages mentioned in this article are statistically significant at the 5% level. Interviews were conducted by graduate students in sociology and professional interviewers.

Why Adults Do or Do Not Watch Educational Television

BY JACK LYLE

The reasons given for watching or not watching educational television have a great deal of bearing upon why people attend to commercial television as well. The following study was the pilot for a series being conducted by the Institute for Communication Research at Stanford University for the National Educational Television and Radio Center. The study was planned by Dr. Wilbur Schramm and the author, with the latter supervising the field work and analysis. Dr. Lyle is presently assistant professor of Journalism at the University of California, Los Angeles.

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TO understand the audience of a mass medium in relation to the medium's effectiveness, it is necessary to know more than just the size and sociological aspects of the audience. We must also know something of the psychological dynamics of the indviduals constituting the audience.

One concept put forth to aid in understanding the individual's selection and use of media content is the "delayed-immediate rewards" concept advanced by Schramm.[1] Drawing upon psychoanalytic theory, Schramm suggested that in reading the newspaper, different people select and use news stories for different purposes. Some people are looking *primarily* for information which will be useful to them in some way—in business, in civic affairs, in social situations, in child care, in coping with personal problems, etc. This type of reading Schramm termed "delayed reward" reading since the reading of the story does not necessarily offer immediate satisfaction (indeed, it may subject the reader to immediate discomfort), but does offer the hope of future utility. Others, he suggests, select and use stories *primarily* for entertainment, thrill, to escape problems rather than solve them. They are seeking "immediate rewards" of a pleasurable nature.

This concept was found to be helpful in identifying patterns of children's reading of the newspaper,[2] and was further gen-

eralized to children's use of all the mass media and in particular television, by Schramm, Lyle and Parker.[3] In a study of 6,000 children in the United States and Canada, patterns of media use were found which fit the hypothesized prototypes.

Some children, called "reality oriented" by these authors, used television less and books and magazines more than others of their age. Further, within their use of television they were more selective, being more likely to seek out specific programs, to view more news and information programs and more ETV where available than their peers who actually spent more total time with the medium. Others, labelled "fantasy oriented," were heavy and indiscriminate users of television while practically avoiding the printed media with the exception of comic books and pulp magazines. In Schramm's original terminology, the reality oriented children would be delayed reward seekers, the fantasy oriented would be immediate reward seekers.

The way children used the media was found to be related both to intelligence and to the socio-economic status of their family (as measured by father's occupation and educational background). Children with low intelligence and those from blue collar homes were more likely to be fantasy seekers than children with high intelligence and those from white collar homes. Both these latter groups had a high incidence of reality orientation.

Further, among children of the same social class, those who scored high on a test measuring antisocial aggression were more likely to be fantasy seekers than those whose scores reflected a lower level of such aggression.

Studies of the adult audience of educational television suggest that the delayed and immediate reward typologies can be carried over to the adult population. In a summary of 17 studies done in various parts of the nation, Schramm[4] reports as a general finding that viewing of educational television is correlated to high socio-economic status, education, participation in cultural and civic affairs, "high brow" media behavior (FM and hi-fi listening with particular emphasis on classical music), and being an opinion leader. These findings fit the hypothetical formulations.

Can viewing of educational television by adults be more directly connected with delayed reward orientation? In an attempt to

answer this question let us look at a body of data gathered in a study of the audience of KRMA-TV, the station owned and operated by the Denver Public Schools. In addition to its afternoon programming for in-class viewing by students, KRMA-TV also airs a regular schedule of evening programs aimed at adults. In its evening programming the station faces the competition of four commercial stations representing all three major television networks.

Method

The study was done in two stages. First a list of randomly selected telephone numbers in the Denver metropolitan area was compiled, and using this list 3,424 telephone interviews were obtained. Of the respondents, 49% stated that someone in the household watched KRMA-TV at least occasionally, 47% said no one ever watched the station, and 4% stated that they did not have a television set.

For methodological purposes to counteract possible prestige-seeking behavior which might inflate the number claiming to be ETV viewers, only those respondents who stated that they themselves watched KRMA-TV at least occasionally *and* were able to name the last program they had seen on this channel were classified as KRMA-TV viewers. Using this criterion 32% of the men and 36% of the women contacted were classified as KRMA-TV viewers.

After telephone respondents were divided into four groups on the basis of sex and whether or not the respondent was a KRMA-TV viewer, subsamples were randomly selected from each group. The original plan was to obtain 200 viewers and 100 non-viewers, each group evenly divided by sex. However, increased interviewing expenses stemming from the length of the interview schedule and a heavy snow during the weekend led to a reduced sample size and a disproportionate number of females. The final sample for this stage included 54 male and 84 female KRMA-TV viewers, 27 male and 38 female non-viewers.

Results

Answers in the first stage showed the expected pattern of media selection. Those who qualified as ETV viewers were much

heavier users of the printed media than were non-viewers: whereas for non-viewers 57% of the men and 50% of the women stated that they had read no books in the last half year, for ETV viewers the percentages were only 36 and 29 respectively for men and women. Thirty % of the non-viewers stated that they read no magazines "regularly" contrasted to only 13% of male viewers and 17% female viewers. While attendance at cultural and civic affairs was not high for any group, viewers were much more likely to have attended some such affair than were non-viewers (Table I). Of the viewers 50% of the men and 43% of the women had some college work contrasted to 28 and 27% for non-viewers.

TABLE I

Attendance at Cultural and Civic Events During Previous Six Months

Attended	ETV Viewers		Non-Viewers	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Concerts	20%	22%	8%	13%
Lectures	20	15	7	8
Discussion Groups and/or Evening Courses	20	17	10	10
Community Affairs Meetings	24	20	11	13
N=	54	84	27	38

There was little difference in self-estimated television viewing time for the groups, the median daily time for male and female ETV viewers being 2:06 and 2:07 hours, for male and female non-viewers 2:00 and 2:05 hours. This supports the findings of Carter[5] in Minneapolis and his conclusion that ETV viewing is not additional exposure time, but viewing time diverted from commercial television.

In the study of children it was found that those in the reality oriented group were more likely to seek out specific programs for viewing rather than just turn the set on and take what was offered. Unfortunately, in the present study of adults a similar

question regarding total television viewing was not asked. However we do have evidence that the ETV viewers are selective with regard to what they view on the educational channel. Of the ETV viewers 91% of the men and 81% of the women stated that they "select just certain KRMA-TV programs and watch only these." This is supported by another finding: the ETV viewers in the second stage were asked to mark on a check list all the KRMA-TV programs during the preceding week which they had viewed. Only two programs during the week had been watched by more than a quarter of the ETV viewing respondents: *Open End* was seen by 36% of the men and 22% of the women, *Ragtime Era* by 32% of the men, 28% of the women. Totalling respondents' ETV viewing time for these check lists showed that only 54% of the men spent as much as two hours during the week watching KRMA-TV, 42% of the women. Only 11% of the men and 6% of the women spent more than three hours during the week viewing the educational channel.

Further, inspection of the check sheets reveals that only two respondents showed evidence of turning their set to KRMA-TV and just leaving the dial there for long periods. One exception to the tendency to view programs individually is during Monday night's line up of *Redman's America*, *Ragtime Era* and *Challenge*. A number of persons did watch all three of these successive programs. Another exception is the 6:30 to 7:30 p.m. block daily which features two children's shows following the French and Spanish programs.

This tendency to view ETV selectively was also suggested by the factor analytic studies of program preferences by Carter[6] and MacLean and Crane.[7] The finding of factors indicated that program selection is done more by category than by general availability. In the latter study, which is the more recent, five types of program content appeal were suggested: arts, public affairs, self-improvement, science and tradition.

In one stage of the Schramm, Lyle and Parker study of children, 200 tenth graders in Denver were asked about their mass media behavior together with a series of questions designed to tap their acceptance or rejection of deferred gratification norms

which are said to be approved by white collar mores but not by blue collar mores.[8] These statements were: (1) The best way to live is to enjoy today and not think about tomorrow, (2) The best way to be happy is to plan ahead, and (3) It's a good idea to work harder today so you can enjoy tomorrow more. Deferred gratification norms should be reflected by disagreement with question 1, agreement with questions 2 and 3.

In the tenth grader study the questions did not meet the criterion of scale analysis by the Guttman method, but the answers were correlated. Therefore the total score for all three items was treated as an index score. In the analysis there was a significant difference as predicted between the media use groups' average index scores, and the differences held when the items were analyzed individually. The reality oriented students were more likely to think in terms of planning for the future, fantasy oriented students were more likely to want to enjoy today without worry of the future. Also as expected, there was a relationship between answers and the student's socio-economic status, but the differences between media use groups still held within social strata.

For the adults in the KRMA-TV study the results were less unequivocal. First, it should be noted that overall the adults were more likely than were the tenth graders to accept the delayed reward mores as reflected by these questions. The expected relationship for viewers of educational television to answer in terms of delayed rewards and for non-viewers to answer in terms of immediate rewards was not found for women. The two media use groups of women did not differ significantly. For men the expected difference was found for question 1 (X^2=5.72, p=.02 with df=1) and question 3 (X^2=8.35, p=.001 with df=1), but not for question 2 (X^2=.24 with df=1).

The most striking differences between viewers and non-viewers of educational television were found in descriptive profiles for commercial television and KRMA-TV. Respondents were asked to described both "regular commercial television" and "KRMA" on a modified version of the semantic differential. This consisted of a series of 13 four unit unipolar word scales. Respondents were asked to check whether they thought commercial television was

"not at all," "somewhat," "quite" or "very" interesting, useful, etc. The process was repeated for KRMA-TV.

The profiles for the viewers and non-viewers of KRMA-TV showed marked differences in three areas (Table II). The largest

TABLE II

Description Profiles for Educational TV and Commercial TV

"Quite" or "Very"	ETV Viewers (N=138)		Non-Viewers (N=65)		Comparative Differences*	
	ETV	Comme'l	ETV	Comme'l	Viewers	Non-viewers
Informative	95%	31%	74%	48%	+64%	+26%
Useful	85	22	67	43	+63	+24
Satisfying	84%	27%	51%	56%	+57%	− 5%
Interesting	87	56	43	64	+31	−21
Fun	51	45	25	66	+ 6	−41
Violent	4%	48%	2%	33%	−44%	−31%
Brutal	1	42	2	20	−41	−18
Dull	3	10	5	2	− 7	+ 3
Annoying	1	16	5	7	−15	− 2
Hard Work	17%	10%	25%	7%	+ 7%	+18%
Amateur	10	10	11	20	0	− 9
Snobbish	3	5	2	2	− 2	0
Boring	2	14	3	7	−12	− 4

*+Means this magnitude of percentage difference exists with ETV having been so described by *more* persons than commercial television; −means the larger percentage used the word in describing commercial television.

difference concerned utility and satisfaction. Those who do not watch KRMA-TV see less difference between KRMA-TV and commercial television in terms of being "informative" and "useful" than do those who are KRMA-TV viewers. And while the KRMA-TV viewers find KRMA-TV more "interesting," "satisfying" and "fun" than commercial television, the non-viewers give commercial television a big margin on "interesting" and "fun." The other area of disagreement is less sharp, but still noticeable. The viewers of educational television are more critical of com-

mercial television on the counts of being "violent," "brutal" and "annoying" than are the non-viewers.

One further hint of delayed reward use of the medium of the ETV viewers comes from their responses when questioned as to why they watch KRMA-TV. "To learn" was the most frequently given open end response, given by 63% of the men, 54% of the women. Other frequent responses were "for specific programs" and/or "because of special interest in certain topics (37% of the men, 42% of the women), and "to escape commercial television" (30% of the men, 25% of the women).

The viewers were also given a check list of nine reasons for watching ETV and were asked to check all which mirrored their own reasons for watching KRMA. The three receiving the largest measure of agreement were: "It (ETV) is intellectualy stimulating" (65% of both men and women), "It offers cultural programs not available on commercial television" (65% of the men, 56% of the women), and "It helps me keep better informed" (56% of the men, 45% of the women).[9]

Both KRMA-TV viewers and non-viewers were asked why they thought some people do not watch KRMA-TV. The most frequently given explanation was that such people "want only entertainment from television" (22% of viewers, 40% of non-viewers).

Discussion

Can the adult audience be divided into media use groups including typologies of delayed and immediate reward seeking? The present data strongly suggest that this division is possible. That the general media habits of the viewers of the educational television station as well as their socio-economic status match with those generally found for the delayed reward seeking children supports this conclusion. Further, the introspective statements of the educational television viewers concerning why they do watch KRMA-TV directly indicate a delayed reward usage.

Perhaps the strongest support for the principle comes from the comparative answers as to why persons who do not watch KRMA-TV do not. Since the non-viewers themselves fall into this category

it seems likely that their answers are to some degree self-descriptive. Therefore, the fact that non-viewers are even more likely than viewers to explain non-viewing as a result of people wanting *only entertainment* (immediate rewards) from television offers strong support. This is further strengthened by the fact that only 9% of the non-viewers gave "they don't know about it" as a reason for not watching KRMA-TV whereas 20% of the viewers suggested that this was the reason why other people didn't watch.

Unfortunately the present data do not extend into the use of commercial television by these two groups, and this is vitally needed to definitely establish the principle. It must be remembered that even those constituting the audience of the ETV station still spend the bulk of their television time viewing the commercial channels. Certainly there is available through these stations a great number of programs which can be classified as offering delayed rewards.

Thus the big question is what portion of the potential television audience is also seeking—and finding— delayed rewards from the programs on commercial stations, and to what extent such motivation influences not only their choice of programs, but the ultimate choice of whether or not the set is turned on at all. This seems the logical "next step" for study.

Footnotes

[1]Schramm, Wilbur. "The nature of news." *Journalism Quarterly*, 1949, Vol. 26, p. 259.

[2]Lyle, Jack. "Immediate vs. delayed reward use of the newspaper by adolescents." Paper read at Association for Education in Journalism, University Park, Pa., August, 1960.

[3]Schramm, Wilbur, Jack Lyle and Edwin B. Parker. *Television in the Lives of Our Children.* Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1961.

[4]Schramm, Wilbur. *The Impact of Educational Television.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1960.

[5]Carter, R. E., Jr., and V. C. Trodahl. *The size and composition of adult evening audience for educational television in the twin cities* (mimeographed). Minneapolis: Communication Research Division Study 191, Report 3, School of Journalism, University of Minnesota, 1961.

[6]Carter, Richard F. *The perceived appeals of television program content.* Madison: University of Wisconsin Television Laboratory, Bulletin No. 8; September 1957.

[7]MacLean, Malcolm S., Jr. and Edgar Crane. "Program preferences: their implications for the educational broadcaster." *Audio Visual Communication Review*, 1961, Vol. 9, pp. 85-98.

[8]Schneider, L. and S. Lysgaard. "The deferred gratification pattern: a preliminary study." *American Sociological Review*, 1953, Vol. 18 pp. 142-149.

[9]Other reasons in the list included: "It is of practical aid in teaching things I want to do," "It helps me continue my education," "It is more satisfying than commercial TV," "It is something people like me should do," "It sets a good example for my children," "It fills a cultural void in the community."

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Time Use Profiles and Program Strategy

BY EDGAR CRANE, ALBERT TALBOTT AND ROSARITA HUME

With the proliferation of broadcasting stations has come a growing realization of the artificiality that results from each station programming for everyone in their service area at the same time. Many stations recognize the various specialized or minority audiences when planning their program schedules. What is not well-known, however, is the degree to which members of a single specialized audience (in this example, housewives) vary in the amount of attention they have available for the broadcast media at different times during the day. The research reported in the following article affords a glimpse at the type of study that may be necessary for successful broadcast programming operations in years to come.

This study was conducted while Edgar Crane was acting as director of research for the Division of Broadcasting Services at Michigan State University, and Albert Talbott and Rosarita Hume were research assistants in the Division. Since the manuscript for this article was completed Professor Crane has moved from the MSU Communications Research Center to the University of Notre Dame, where he is heading a new communications research unit in the Department of Marketing Management.

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SEVEN years ago Schramm[1] suggested that what persons choose to watch on television or listen to on radio depends upon the ratio of reward offered to energy required. Berlo[2] recently suggested that "it is difficult, if not impossible, to put quantitative values" in Schramm's fraction of selection. The authors' recent re-analysis of earlier data suggests that this task, although difficult, is *not* impossible.

We began with the observation that exposure to these media often is combined with some other activity. Ross and Bostian,[3] for example, found that perhaps two-thirds of daytime use of TV and four-fifths of daytime use of radio is combined with household chores. Schramm has found that such practices arise as early as the sixth grade, when 50% of girls combined radio and studies and 25% combined TV and studies.[4, 5]

These other activities require varying amounts of energy; how much do they leave for attending to TV and radio programs? If the

broadcaster knew this, he could adjust his programs' demands upon attention to the supply available.

He might, for example, repeat a great deal, as is done on the typical soap opera, so that his message gets across even if the housewife is distracted. He might use subject matter which is highly redundant in terms of its target audience. He might compose his program of brief units complete in themselves which give the housewife some reward, even if she is periodically interrupted. The TV broadcaster may even find it necessary, at certain times of the day, to convert his channel into a purely audio medium which makes no demands upon visual attention at all. He may have to eliminate the verbal content entirely, in favor of music, which seems to demand less attention.

All these possibilities suggest that programs often demand more attention than the housewife has available, and that when this happens she is likely to switch to another channel or turn the set off completely. It is also possible, however, that programs sometimes demand *less* attention than the media user has available. People who criticize soap operas for repetitiveness and condemn westerns for their stereotyped plots seem to assume the existence of this latter condition. If this situation does exist, then such programs are wasting the resources of both the medium and its user.

If the commercial broadcaster could harmonize his programs' demands upon attention with the "supply" of attention available, he might be able to increase his audience markedly. (He may be able to survive, however, if his programs demand a low level of attention, provided only that his sporadic commercials are in harmony with the small attention supply.) The educational broadcaster, however, whose survival depends upon getting across the programs themselves, tends to demand a sustained level of fairly high attention—more than his audience may have available.

To accomplish such harmony, broadcasters must have the answers to three kinds of questions.

1) The *producer* or purchaser of programs must know for how much time during a typical day various levels of attention are available to him, so that he can obtain the appropriate programs.

2) The *program manager* must know how attention levels vary during the day, so that he can schedule programs at the appropriate time.

3) The *publicist* must know how members of the audience differ in their daily timeuse profiles, so that he can try to attract those whose daily activities are appropriate to the schedule—and perhaps influence others to re-schedule their activities.

An answer to the first question is suggested by a re-analysis of data originally collected by Ross and Bostian,[3] who obtained diaries reporting the daily activities of 761 farm housewives. These showed that the women spent 12% of their waking hours eating, and that 60% of the time spent in eating was combined with radio use, and 26% with use of TV. In short, only 14% of the time spent in eating remained an unrealized potential for the broadcaster. In contrast, women spent much more time in preparing food and doing dishes; these categories accounted for 21% of their day. But such chores were much *less* likely to be combined with media use. Only 20% of time spent in these chores was combined with radio listening and only 8% with TV viewing, so that 72% of these hours remained a target for the broadcaster.

TABLE I

Housewives' Activities and Concurrent Use of Broadcast Media*

% of Waking Hours	Activity	Extent of Media Use		
		Radio	TV	None
21%	Food and dishes	20%	8%	72%
16	Barn chores	18	0	82
15	Cleaning	17	9	74
12	Eating	60	26	14
7	Washing & ironing	17	17	66
6	Child care	17	17	66
5	Sewing	16	32	52
5	Reading	11	22	67
13	Radio or TV use			
100%				

*Data derived from Ross and Bostian.[3]

Devising programs suitable to accompany meal preparation and doing dishes would seem to be a promising strategy for the broadcaster, since such chores take up a fifth of women's waking hours, at least in this study, yet seldom now are combined with media use.

Common sense suggests that the reason they are not combined with media use is that women find the programs demand more attention than they have to spare, or the noise of running water may make listening difficult or impossible. If we are willing to make such common sense assumptions about the amount of attention which various activities require—pending further research to test these assumptions—we can chart the time at which such activities are scheduled during the day. This chart, in turn, shows the ebb and flow of attention available for media use.

Such charts were constructed by recoding 100 housewives' diaries collected in Michigan by Dr. Alice Thorpe.[6] Since we were concerned with attention levels as an index to potential availability for the media audience, the presence or absence of a television or radio set was taken into account—recognizing always that given sufficient motivation, the radio set, at least, could be moved to the site of the activity. For convenience, the recorded activities were reported by arbitrary ranks of attention, constructed as follows:

Rank	Activity	Presumed Level of Available Attention
0	Out of house, unavailable	None
1	Barn chores, keeping records, mail	Low
2	Personal grooming, child care, laundry and cleaning in rooms *without* radio or TV	Low
3	Cooking, washing dishes in rooms *without* radio or TV	Moderate
4	Laundry, cleaning or personal grooming in rooms *with* radio or TV	Moderate
5	Cooking, washing dishes in room *with* radio or TV	Moderate
6	Eating	Moderate
7	Sewing	High
8	Leisure or reading	High
9	Actual use of radio or TV	All

For charting purposes, the five "presumed levels of available attention" were used rather than the ten "ranks," since it proved difficult to visually grasp the ten categories arrayed for comparison by 15-minute intervals throughout the day. The reduction in size made necessary by the size of a JOURNAL page would further render incomprehensible the charts prepared for analysis of these data. Accordingly, for purposes of illustration of our findings in this article, a sample of the results are shown in table II.

TABLE II

Sample Weekday Time-Use Patterns of Housewives*

	Amount of Attention Presumed Available for Use of Broadcast Media							
	High		Moderate		Low		None	
Hour	Farm N=48	Town N=29	Farm N=48	Town N=29	Farm N=48	Town N=29	Farm N=48	Town N=29
9:30 a.m.	8%	6%	31%	49%	46%	38%	15%	3%
12:00 noon	2	7	65	73	21	11	12	3
6:00 p.m.	4	14	79	69	2	3	13	10
7:30 p.m.	10	11	40	6	19	21	19	38

*Data derived from Thorpe[6, 7]; all have TV sets. This table for illustration only; tabulations and charts for each 15 minute segment of the day from 7:00 a.m. to 11:00 p.m. are available for each level of available attention.

This table shows, for example, that 7:30 p.m. is a better time to reach farm women than town women, since 50% of the former had high or medium attention available for media use, compared with 17% of the latter, the difference being significant at the .05 level (two-tailed test). Nor was this because farm women were already using the media; at 7:30 p.m., only 12% of farm women were using radio or TV, compared with 24% of town women.

Although such figures as these answer our second question by showing the program manager how attention levels vary during the day, it must be remembered that these are profiles of *averages*. They do not necessarily represent the time-use pattern of any single woman. To capitalize upon them, the broadcaster might have to obtain high audience turnover at frequent intervals throughout the day.

In short, in attempting to increase his audience by programming for the majority *at any given moment* he might flout everything he knows about building audiences through time. Or, even though a new strategy geared to the average time-use profile might increase his overall audience, this might be at the expense of permanently excluding from his audience some women whose profiles were *always* out of phase with his program schedule.

This, of course, is the problem raised by our third question—the extent to which time-use profiles differ from individual to individual. To shed light on this problem, we fed the re-coded diary data into an electronic computer. Each housewife was paired with every other, the difference between the attentional rank of their chores being obtained for each of the 64 quarter-hours between 7 a.m. and 11 p.m. These differences were then totalled, so that at the end we had a matrix of scores showing the extent of difference between each housewife and every other.

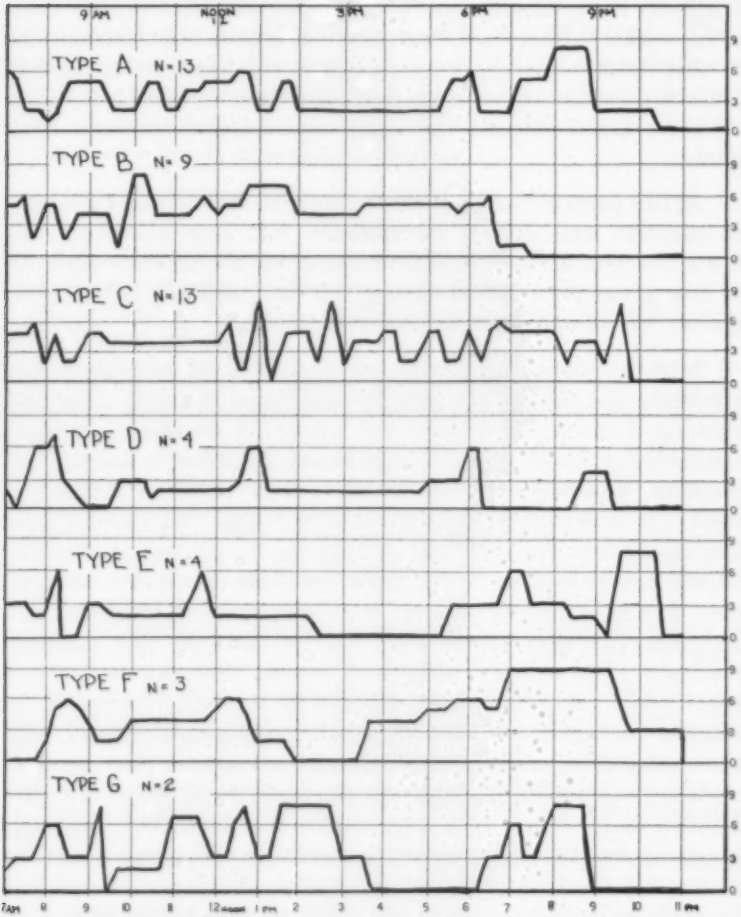
By inspection, looking for the lowest score for each housewife, we then found which other woman each most resembled. When we were finished, we had seven clusters of farm women: two groups of 13 each, one of 9, two of 4 each, one of 3 and one of 2. At the center of each cluster was a key pair of women who highly resembled one another. We then drew the time-use profile for one woman in each pair, as the archetype of the cluster. These profiles are shown in Figure I.

What can one say about these seven types of women? The broadcaster may note, for example, that few of the profiles rise above the midpoint, indicating little time spent in activities such as leisure, sewing, or eating which are readily combined with media use. (Type A profile has 120 minutes of this kind, type B 150 minutes, and type C 90 minutes. The maximum of 5 hours a day was found in the Type G profile.)

All types except C spent rather long periods at the same level of activity. (Types A, D, and E, for example, spent a good deal of time in activities with an index score of 2—laundry, child care, or cleaning in rooms without radio. Type A spent 3.5 hours thus, from 2 to 5:30 p.m.; type D 5.7 hours, from 10:45 a.m. to 12:30 and 1:15 to 5 p.m.; and type E 4.5 hours, from 9:30 to 11:30 a.m. and noon to 2:30 p.m.)

FIGURE I

Time-Use Profiles for Key Types of Farm Women*



*Each profile represents that of a woman chosen as archetype of her group.

VERTICAL SCALE: represents the ten-point rank index of presumed audience attention availability referred to in the text. Note that each profile ends at the baseline, with "0" indicating complete unavailability. The "9" point indicates actual media use.

HORIZONTAL SCALE: represents hours from 7:00 a.m. to 11:00 p.m.

Which were the best targets for increased media use? This depends. Types A, B, and G, for example, had at least 105 minutes of leisure a day which was not combined with media use, but type G already spent an additional 105 minutes with the media. Which is more likely—that the heavy users of type G will increase use or that the non-users of types A and B will begin using media? Since the amount of attention available for media use is equal in all three cases, only further study can indicate which is most likely.

At this point our original three questions concerning the supply of attention available in the audience had been answered. We knew the total amount at each index level, the amount available at any given time period during the day, and the relative frequency of various types of time-use profiles.

In the process of answering the questions, we had raised new questions that pointed the need for additional research. Does our ranking of chores reflect the actual amount of attention they leave available for media use? An experiment is needed to answer this question. Up-to-date figures on housewives' patterns of time use need to be collected, particularly in urban areas. Given such data, and an effective, objective way of indexing the amount of attention which housewives' activities leave available for media use, the way then is opened for stations to experiment with programs and program schedules which will capture more of this potential audience. The relative number of women who can carry on a chore while using the media provides an indirect measure of the relative amount of attention that chore requires; combined with their subjective ratings of the amount of reward they perceive various programs as offering, we can then begin to quantify the fraction of selection. It is also possible that both chore and program can be rated independently, and fairly objectively, as to the amount of attention which each requires, allowing predictions to be made of behavior which will occur when both are offered to the housewife simultaneously.

Even without such further studies, however, this one has already borne fruit. When we asked executives of the TV and radio stations at Michigan State University, WMSB and WKAR, to rate their programs in terms of the demands such programs made

upon attention, both realized they were following a "sawtooth" pattern of programming. This was particularly noticeable on WKAR where throughout most of the day 15 minutes of talk (making "high" demands on attention), alternated with 15 minutes of music (making "low" demands on attention). When executives compared these demand-upon-attention curves with the supply-of-attention-available (as shown in Table II) the discrepancy was obvious and the stations began experimenting with programs better keyed to audience conditions.

Footnotes

[1]Schramm, Wilbur. *The Process and Effects of Mass Communication.* Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1954. p. 19.

[2]Berlo, David K. *The Process of Communication.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1960. p. 98.

[3]Ross, John E., and Lloyd R. Bostian. *Time Use Patterns and Communications Activities of Wisconsin Farm Families in Wintertime.* Bulletin 28, Department of Agricultural Journalism, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, March 1958.

[4]Schramm, Wilbur, Jack Lyle and Edwin B. Parker. *Television in the Lives of Our Children.* Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1961.

[5]Additional evidence is provided by a series of studies at the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. In the pre-TV days of 1949, 82% of Columbus housewives combined radio listening with other activities. In 1955, 62% of Tuscaloosa (Alabama) housewives combined TV use with other activities. For additional data, see:

Daytime Household Activities and Radio Program Listening by Women in Columbus, Ohio. Report by the Dept. of Speech, Ohio State University, April 1949 (mimeo).

Hopf, Howard E. and Raymond T. Bedwell, Jr. *Listener availability and types of news and music preferred by radio listeners.* Dept of Speech, Ohio State University, November 1959 (mimeo).

Smith, Don C. *Television Program Selection, Liking for Television Programs and Levels of Attention Given to Television Programs by Housewives in Tuscaloosa, Alabama.* Dept. of Speech, Ohio State University, December 1959 (mimeo).

[6]Thorpe, Alice C. *Patterns of Family Interaction in Farm and Town Homes.* Technical Bulletin 260, Agricultural Experiment Station, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, April 1957.

[7]Thorpe, Alice C. and Irma H. Gross. *Family Use of Farm Homes.* Technical Bulletin 227, Agricultural Experiment Station, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, April 1952.

Back Issues

Copies of all back issues, with the exception of Volume I, Number 1, are still available from the office of the JOURNAL.

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The JOURNAL hopes that these services will increase the availability of complete sets of the publication, and will thus decrease the present difficulties of researchers.

College Broadcasting Courses: Two Symposia

BY SHERMAN P. LAWTON

At some time in the future it may be that broadcasting will become a profession with an agreed upon preparatory course of study. At the present time, not only is there a lack of uniformity in course offerings and content, but there is no substantial agreement as to whether broadcasting is or even should be a profession. (In this connection, the recent proposals by William Chambliss in the September 18 issue of BROADCASTING *looking toward professional standards, education and licencing for advertising practitioners become particularly intriguing.)*

Most encouraging however is the interest shown by teachers of broadcasting whenever they assemble for discussion of their common problems. In the following report, Professor Sherman P. Lawton, author of THE MODERN BROADCASTER *and coordinator of Broadcasting Instruction at the University of Oklahoma describes the questions raised (but not settled) at two recent meetings: a colloquium on the beginning course in broadcasting held as part of the "Annual Radio-TV Conference and Clinic" in March 1961 at the University of Oklahoma, and a APBE-sponsored session at the April meeting of the Institute for Education by Radio-Television in Columbus.*

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Annual Radio-TV Conference and Clinic, University of Oklahoma, March 24-27, 1961

(Participants in the colloquium were: Martha May Boyer, Lindenwood College; Everett Brown, Pratt Junior College; Ed Dumit, Tulsa University; Martin Landers, Wayland Baptist College; Sherman Lawton, University of Oklahoma; Bruce Linton, University of Kansas; Rita Ludwig, Arkansas City Junior College; Lowell Perry, Abilene Christian College; Ansel Resler, University of Oklahoma; Jack Walker, West Texas State College).

BEGINNING courses in broadcasting vary in nature. Whether they should or could be more uniform is debatable.

To explore the topic, instructors in the geographical area of the Annual Radio-TV Conference and Clinic at the University of

Oklahoma were invited to take part in an informal colloquium, preceding the regular sessions of the Conference. This summary of the discussion which took place is intended to do no more than to outline factors which exist. It does not presume to make recommendations, although the general sense of the group on some items is reported.

To begin with, various studies of the needs of beginning courses have been made since 1932. In general, these have been based on opinions of instructors, professional broadcasters and, sometimes, students. Instructors seem to lean toward an informational approach in beginning courses; broadcasters are divided between those who want people trained in specific skills and those who believe that a broad understanding of the industry is most important; students want activity and skills training.

Purpose. The purposes of beginning courses vary widely. Some existing purposes are:

1. To prepare students for future courses in broadcasting. These may be basic courses in radio, in television, or a combination. The eventual purpose is to train for the broadcasting industry.

2. To meet the needs of students for whom the course will be terminal, either because only one course is offered or because the student does not propose to take more than a single course.

3. To serve as a stimulus to speech training; as an adjunct to training people as future speech teachers.

4. To serve as a part of overall training in character development. The view here is that undergraduate work is to develop the "whole individual," while professional training should be left to the graduate level.

5. To develop an "appreciation" of broadcasting, from the standpoint of information, artistic standards, socio-psychological attitudes, or a combination of these factors. In some cases the purpose is to train "intelligent listeners." A simi-

lar purpose is to produce citizens who are informed about this important aspect of modern society.

6. To train teachers to utilize broadcasts to classrooms, or to produce educational programs.
7. To serve as a "finding" course, in which students and instructors can discover which students show promise for a career in broadcasting.
8. To serve other related areas, such as speech, drama and journalism, when these departments are separately organized.

Content. As the natural corollary of these varied purposes, the content of the courses is diverse. Some, probably most, emphasize information. Others emphasize activity training. Some provide for specific skills development. Some give training in listening and viewing. Some offer a combination of these course elements.

In fact, some schools have what might be considered several "first" or beginning courses: one which is primarily informational; one activity course in radio and another in TV, either of which may also include information and appreciation units. It is conceivable that one "beginning" course may be designed as terminal for non-majors, and another for students who propose to go on with a series of professional courses. In most cases the course must serve both groups.

School Size. Course purposes tend to vary according to school size. Small schools offer fewer courses and, consequently, more courses which might be considered terminal in function. Large schools, with a sequence constituting a major or equivalent, think of the first as primarily preparatory to later courses.

Equipment. Course purposes vary according to available equipment.

School Type. Course purposes vary according to school type. In religious colleges the training is geared toward the use of broadcast facilities by ministers. In teacher-training institutions, utilization techniques may be the dominant element; some training may be given in producing effective radio and television programs

for teaching. Colleges which aim toward a general education program (which is true of most four-year Liberal Arts colleges, and of Colleges of Arts and Sciences in universities) may frown on activity training. Colleges of Fine Arts may emphasize skills training. Professional programs, no matter where located, may or may not emphasize information in the beginning course, depending on the philosophy of the instructors. Strictly vocational courses, including extension work from universities, are probably likely to emphasize activity and skill. In some schools the administration or faculty attitude may limit the number of courses, and thereby affect the purposes.

The values of an "information-only" first course are that a student will understand his work better when he enters later activity courses; an informational course might also serve terminal purposes of some students.

The values of activity training in a beginning course are: student expectation is met; students are given an opportunity to try out their abilities, with a view to continuing their training in later courses; some types of activities give point and meaning to some of the information which would normally be included in a beginning course; activities create student unity and understanding of the need for cooperation. In some cases beginning courses necessarily include activity units, to provide a source for broadcast programs.

Disadvantages of incorporating activities in a beginning course include the possibility that informational aspects may be neglected; the possibility that students with a minimum of training may then take jobs in the industry without a broad background in the field.

Activity training in beginning courses is handled in various ways. One method is to schedule the activity work outside of class, either on a student station, a school educational station, or in school broadcasts or projects at commercial stations. Another way is to incorporate the activity work as projects within class periods, coupled with informational material from a text and lectures. At some schools the term is divided into three periods, of which one

each is devoted to information, activity and appreciation; at others, all three types of work carry concurrently throughout the term.

Information Content. The instructors who took part in the colloquium were agreed that informational content was a necessary part of a beginning course, and that the information should be more than skills information and facts about the operation of equipment. They felt that certain areas of information should be common to all beginning courses, although the depth to which they are carried necessarily depends on the purposes of the course. These areas are: 1. history, with application to the current status of the industry; 2. controls of broadcasting, including FCC and FTC regulations, with recent changes, and the industry's own methods of self-discipline; 3. the organization of the industry, including networks, agencies, syndication groups, etc.; 4. the "American System," including an understanding of competition in a democracy; 5. economic factors; 6. technical understanding of studio and broadcasting equipment; 7. station organization; 8. programing, including standards and philosophy; 9. audience factors, and measurement methods; 10. socio-psychological aspects, including some understanding of propaganda; 11. occupational facts and factors.

It was recognized that any of these suggested elements might constitute one or more advanced courses.

Courses in specific fields, such as news, advertising writing, etc., are usually advanced courses, although elementary units are properly included as activities in some beginning courses. While the beginning course should be for the many, the advanced courses are for the few.

Miscellaneous. There appears to be no universal practice in relationship to term papers and final quizzes. Some instructors prefer a series of short papers and quizzes. Class discussion was considered important by the group.

It was felt that course labels should indicate the course content clearly, to facilitate transfer credit.

It was felt that a beginning course should instill a sense of professional ethics, and encourage high standards of personal character.

1961 Institute for Education by Radio-Television

(Members of the panel at an APBE sponsored session were: Elmer G. Sulzer, Indiana University; T. M. Williams, Brigham Young University; Colby Lewis, Michigan State University; Gale Adkins, University of Kansas; Sherman P. Lawton, University of Oklahoma, Chairman).

At the thirty-first Institute for Education by Radio-Television, problems which face college instruction in broadcasting were posed in a session sponsored by APBE. This discussion was not limited to beginning courses. Some tenuous solutions to specific local situations were offered by members of the audience, but the panel of instructors used the occasion to list and synthesize the problems. It was felt that a list of questions, accumulated over the years, would be of value as a basis for solutions during coming years. The questions may be arranged under several headings.

The questions raised by this panel, are, for the most part, not new. Some of them overlap in scope. They are, however, valid and significant questions to which there may be no universal or permanent answers. But they stand as a persistent challenge. Frequent pauses in our hectic weeks to ask and re-ask these questions should be wholesome.

Purposes. Broadcasting is many-faceted. It is education and entertainment. It is radio and television and film. It is equipment and programs. It is esthetics and business. It is Main Street and Madison Avenue. Which, or what combination, of these faces should we buss? Who, or what conditions, do or should determine what our emphasis should be? What are we training for? Do varying purposes mean varying methods? Can, or should, all purposes be served all places?

Should we train students for the industry as it is or as it could be? Are idealism and practicality antithetical? To what extent should our purposes include service to other instructional areas, such as Advertising, Business, Home Economics and Education? Or training our own colleagues who appear on our educational stations or closed circuit TV?

Organization. What are the values and implications of departmentalization of radio-TV courses? What are the merits of combining Radio, TV and Film? If we are not a separate department, what are the implications of our affiliation, whether it be with Speech, Drama, Journalism, Business, Mass Communications, Public Relations or Extension? If we are a separate department, what courses should properly be left to other departments?

Content. To whom are we going to listen about the content of our courses? To the industry? If so, shall we heed those who tell us to give students a broad education and leave the "nuts and bolts" training to them? Or those who demand a product ready to mesh with their operational gears? When we embrace administratively traditional educational aims, must we abandon skills training? To what extent must our courses meet student expectations and demands?

Are there basic *sine quae non* for all schools and all purposes?

Is the basic content of courses different when we train for the commercial world than it is for educational broadcasting? If so, how?

To what extent should courses be geared to specific vocational opportunities? How much splintering and proliferation of courses is justifiable?

What is the proper ratio between "mechanics and techniques" courses and those in background material and philosophy of the media?

What should be the relationship between course work, course credit and work on student or college stations? To what extent should skills training be included in formal courses; how much should be left to laboratory and station activity?

How can we best keep pace with changing technological conditions? For instance, what should we do about radio production? Film? If courses must be changed to adapt to changing technology, are they sound academic courses to begin with, or are they too much industry-oriented?

Is there a divisive dichotomy inherent in our work? Is there a basic and insoluble disparity between the artistic values of Drama and Speech, for example, and the fact-searching disciplines of the several behavioral sciences?

How can the content of our courses serve not only our own majors, but non-majors as well?

Requirements. What is the proper requirement ratio between broadcasting and other courses? What period of years is necessary to meet minimum educational and professional needs? What are the minimum needs?

How can we meet the time problem of student participation in a variety of conflicting activities, some of them required, and the academic needs of the classroom? Should any activities be required? If so, which ones?

What courses in related or supplementary areas should be required? How can we be sure that these courses meet our needs; for example, does a course in design consist of figure-drawing, or does it have direct applications to our work?

How can we meet the problem of prerequisites in allied fields; for instance, must a student take several hours of newspaper journalism before he can get a course in radio news or in advertising? How can we maintain standards in such things as English proficiency and diction if the norm which satisfies English and Speech departments does not seem satisfactory to us?

Responsibilities to Students. Does our guidance lead toward goals of a life of service or a life of gain? Are these goals irreconcileable? How can we provide for the maximum development of widely varying individuals? How can we ensure that our work is devised in such a way as to give emphasis to personal development of our students in qualities of character and in personality characteristics? What is proper course size?

On what basis can we give sound advisement in regard to courses outside the broadcasting curriculum? Can we improve our methods of student evaluation? Will anecdotal records and conference grading result in better grading?

Means and Methods. How much and what kind of equipment do we need to do our jobs properly? How can we justify funds for the acquisition and maintenance of equipment in relationship to class size? Since our stations increasingly need their facilities for expanded broadcasting schedules, has the need for classroom instructional equipment been sharpened? Where will the studios and needed equipment come from? How can we show the need for image orthicon equipment in contrast to vidicon, the need for film production facilities to meet changing conditions, and the values of videotape as a training tool? Especially, how can we justify these expenditures with small enrollment, which looks inefficient to administrations?

What is the appropriate use of industry practitioners in credit courses? To what extent can internships at stations be built into credit courses?

What is the proper evaluation of student station work as part of credit courses? Does student leadership at student stations often mislead?

Sequence and Level. At what point in a student's college career should he begin his broadcasting training? What is the proper sequence of courses? What should be the relationship between graduate and undergraduate courses? Is it proper that undergraduate courses should be industry-oriented and graduate courses pointed toward educational broadcasting and toward teaching?

Relationships to Other School Broadcast Functions. What should be our relationships to our ETV stations, CCTV operations, learning resources centers, foreign aid projects and Public Relations? Should equipment be shared in the interests of economy? Should the staffs be modulated, multiplexed or insulated? What jurisdictional claims should we have on these enterprises or they on us?

Relationships to the Industry. How can we assure the competence of teachers, including graduate students as well as teachers without industry experience?

How can we meet the immediate needs of employers without jeopardizing the long-term needs of the employee and the industry?

How, in our zeal to maintain standards in the class room, can we find time to create a generally favorable image, find funds for needed equipment, get the grants, host the conferences, recruit students, do research, publish books, develop new projects, arrange for guest speakers, impress the administration—and help individual students grow?

Increase in Subscription Rates

Reluctantly, because of steady and substantial increases in printing and other costs, it will be necessary to raise the subscription rates of the JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING, effective January 1, 1962. This increase will enable the JOURNAL to meet production expenses for the most part, although the publication will continue to incur a substantial deficit each year. The increase was voted by the APBE Board of Directors in May.

Orders received for Volume VI (1962) before January 1, 1962, will be honored at the lower rates now in effect. After January 1, 1962, the following rates will apply:

	Regular	Student
Annual subscription	$6.00	$3.00
Single copies, current issue	1.75	1.25
Back issues, complete volumes	6.00	5.00
Back issues, single copies	1.75	1.50
Individual Membership in APBE for 1962 (Including the JOURNAL, *Feedback* and other benefits)	$8.50	

Graduate Theses and Dissertations on Broadcasting 1959-1960

Compiled by Franklin H. Knower

This report continues the compilation and indexing of graduate studies in broadcasting that have been published periodically by the JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING. Other reports in this series have been:

> *Doctoral dissertations in radio and television* (1920-1957). (Compiled from the lists of Raymond D. Cheydleur, Robert J. Golter and Joseph R. Scharrer). Fall, 1957 (Vol. I, No. 4, pp. 377-383).
>
> *Graduate theses and dissertations on broadcasting* (1920-1956). (Compiled by Robert E. Summers, based upon the lists of Raymond Cheydleur and Robert J. Golter). Winter, 1957-58 (Vol. II, No. 1, pp. 55-90).
>
> *Doctoral dissertations in radio and television at German universities* (1920-1957). (Edited and translated by E. Franck Lee from the compilation by Winfried B. Lerg). Fall, 1958 (Vol. II, No. 4, pp. 369-375).
>
> *Graduate theses and dissertations on broadcasting: 1956-1958.* (Compiled by Franklin H. Knower). Winter, 1959-60 (Vol. IV, No. 1, pp. 77-87).

Franklin H. Knower is Professor of Speech in the Ohio State University. The present compilation is primarily devoted to those theses completed in 1959 and 1960, although there are some not reported earlier which are included here, with a few from the year 1961. Some selected citations from similar lists in *Journalism Quarterly*, *Journal of Marketing* and *Audio Visual Communication Review* were added by the editorial staff of the JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING.

This list depends for its content upon the cooperation of some responsible person in each institution offering a graduate degree in broadcasting, regardless of department. It is to be hoped that

persons knowing of unreported or incorrect titles will supply such information for the next report.

The titles in the following list are for Master's theses unless specifically designated as doctorates. Each title is reported under only one subject heading.

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Books in Review

TELEVISION IN THE LIVES OF OUR CHILDREN. By Wilbur Schramm, Jack Lyle and Edwin B. Parker. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1961. 324 pp. $6.00.

The topic "children and television" has for years been discussed vehemently in all television countries. Television has often been blamed critically and polemically for one or another of the negative phenomena in the world of today. On the other hand there have been done several reliable studies dealing with special problems in this large and complex field. But up to now in the USA, the "classical" television country, no research approaching in full extent the problem of the effects of television on children has been conducted. This gap has now been filled by the book "Television in the lives of our children."

Three well known scientists, Wilbur Schramm, Director of the Institute for Communication Research at the Stanford University, Jack Lyle, Assistant Professor of Journalism at the University of California, Los Angeles, and Edwin B. Parker, Assistant Professor at the Institute of Communications Research at the University of Illinois have collected in three years of intensive research work (consisting of 11 studies in interviews and tests with 6,000 children and 2,300 parents and educators) extraordinarily comprehensive data about function, role and effects of television in the lives of the children. They compared these data with the results of former special studies.

The authors interpret their broad and detailed material distinctively and also understandably for non-scientists. They evaluate the data with utmost scientific carefulness. All statistical ballast, especially larger tables and methodological discussions have been put into the appendex.

Schramm and associates point out that it is unrealistic to ask what television does *to* children and that instead we have to ask what children do *with* television. They consider the effects of television not simply as a direct function of the medium television but in a higher degree as a variable of the children, their milieu and their personalities. In this aspect they investigate the impact of television on leisure time activities and the attitudes of children, the correlations between viewing time and such factors as age, sex, intelligence, social status, social integration etc. The often discussed questions of juvenile delinquency and passivity, allegedly fostered or even caused by television, are thoroughly analyzed. In dealing with the various kinds of effects the authors discuss physical, emotional, cognitive and behavorial effects; this distinction certainly requires a more detailed differentiation for further studies. Also the dichotomy of "phantasy-seeking" and "reality seeking" behavior which is based on the Freudian "Pleasure principle" and "Reality principal" needs some specification. But apparently the chief aim of this book is not a discussion of basic theoretical topics, but an attempt to answer with empirical material some questions which otherwise would remain objects of mere speculations.

Frequently the results of these American studies are compared by the authors with the data of the comprehensive book by Himmelweit, Oppenheim and Vince, "Television and the child," which is based upon similar investigations in England. The English and the American data correspond to a surprisingly high degree. Here the question arises whether the special features of the medium television result in these unexpected similarities or whether the common social and cultural conditions of both countries are the reason of this

congruence. It would be interesting and scientifically valuable to get comparable material from countries with basically different social and cultural conditions as i.e. Japan, the Soviet Union or South America.

In any case, this book by Schramm, Lyle and Parker is of fundamental importance for further effect studies as well as for the program policy determination by the broadcasters.

Gerhard Maletzke
Hans Bredow-Institut, University of Hamburg

SIMULATION AND GAMING: A SYMPOSIUM. Management Report 55. New York: American Management Association, 1961. 135 pp. $3.75 ($2.50 to AMA members). (Paper)

There is little doubt that the decision making process in broadcast management and broadcast programming will rapidly grow more difficult as the number of stations and the amount of competition increases. The current problems of the manager and program director of a station in a multiple station market will increase as the need to reach segments of the total audience causes program strategies to proliferate. (The article by Crane, Talbott and Hume in this issue of the JOURNAL offers some insight into this area.)

Too few people are familiar with the concepts of the Theory of Games—a useful model or tool for mathematically selecting optimum strategies in (as one author put it) poker, business and war. However, although necessary for original thought in this field, it is not necessary to have thorough training in the mathematical constructs in order to *utilize* game theory as a weapon in the constant struggle for audiences and profits.

The present volume, one of a series of provocative titles published by the American Management Association (1515 Broadway, New York 36) and available to non-members, is a feet-on-the-ground introduction to some of the most intriguing aspects of simulation and gaming. Simulation is an extremely versatile tool that makes it possible to analyze and synthesize complex processes, train and test personnel, and explore "far out" ideas or variations on old ones without the otherwise necessary committment of time, men and money.

The papers in this book include such titles as "Model Building for Management Games," "A Survey of Business Games," "How Valuable is Simulation as a Teaching Tool?", a panel discussion on "Some Aspects of Management Gaming," "Training Managers in Decision Making Through Simulation," "The Use of Simulation in Logistics Policy Research," and "Simulation and Human Behavior." A selected bibliography of 19 pages, divided into sections on the industrial and military aspects of simulation, the industrial and military aspects of games and gaming, and game theory, extends the usefulness of *Simulation and Gaming* beyond its immediate stimulating values.

Although such seemingly abstruse literature has rarely been of much interest to the working broadcaster, it seems certain that in tomorrow's (if not already today's) competitive situation, material of this sort will be found on every decision maker's bookshelf—be he in programming, sales or management. *Simulation and Gaming* is not a "cookbook," but it is a worthy introduction to the purposes and potentialities of an important subject.

J.M.K.

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PURPOSE OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR PROFESSIONAL BROADCASTING EDUCATION

The purpose of this organization is to secure mutual advantages that flow from a continuing relationship between broadcasters and institutions of higher learning which offer a high standard of training and guidance for those who plan to enter the profession of broadcasting.

These are the fundamental objectives of the Association:

To improve the services of broadcasting.

To facilitate exchange of information on broadcasting.

To bring together to their mutual advantage those in broadcasting and those in institutions of higher learning.

To facilitate employment at maximum effectiveness for those who meet the standards of institutions of higher learning and of broadcasting.